DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 298 248 CE 050 356

AUTHOR	Zukas, Miriam, Ed.
TITLE	Transatlantic Dialogue: A Research Exchange; Papers from a Joint Conference (Leeds, England, July 11-13, 1988).
INSTITUTION	Adult Education Research Conference.; Canadian Association for the Study of Adult Education, Guelph (Ontario).; Standing Conference on Univ. Teaching and Research in the Education of Adults.
PUB DATE	88
NOTE	530p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Hilary Helme, Department of Continued Professional Education, University of Leeds, Leeds, LS2 9JT, United Kingdom (15 pounds).
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)
EDRS PRICE	MF02/PC22 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Adult Development; *Adult Education; *Adult Learning; Continuing Education; *Educational Research; *Educational Theories; Females; International Cooperation; *Professional Education; *Research Methodology; Womens Education

ABSTRACT

Over 90 papers focus on adult education research. Selected titles include "Karl Marx's Theoretical Contributions to Radical Adult Education" (Allman, Wallis); "Educating Educators" (Armstrong); "Comparative Study of Philosophical Foundations of Adult Education in China and United States" (Bao); "Ethical Value Dilemmas of Professional Adult Educators in Cooperative Extension Service" (Barber); "Typology of ABE Learner as Derived through Quantitative Induction" (Beder); "Analysis and Critique of Concept of Self in Self-Directed Learning" (Boucouvalas); "Politics of Professionalism" (Cervero); "Relational Aspects of Education of Older Adults" (Chene); "Teacher Actions That Influence Native American Learners" (Conti, Fellenz); "Comparison of Deterrents to Adult Education Participation in Britain and U.S." (Darkenwald); "Adult Education and Needs of Unemployed in Britain" (Edwards); "New Perspectives in Adult Basic Education" (Farr, Moon); "Etiology of Stress upon Adult Learner of Afro-American Descent" (Fields); "Critical Thinking and Critical Theory in Adult Education" (Griffin); "Educating for War and Peace" (Hugo); "Needs, Interests, and Adult Learning" (Jarvis); "Music as Facilitator of Adult Learning" (Kaltoft); "ABC of Independent Study" (Keane et al.); "Andragogy: Return of the Jedi" (Law, Rubenson); "Universities and Education for Social Purpose" (McIlroy, Spencer); "Revisiting Learning Style Theory and Practice" (Marineau, Loesch); "Action Learning" (Marsick); "Test of Tinto's Model of Attrition as Applied to Inner City Adult Literacy Program" (Martin); "Assessment of Continuing Professional Education in U.K. and U.S." (Moser); "English Only or English Plus" (Orem); "Adult Education Needs of Structurally Unemployed in U.S." (Park et al.); "Philosophy and 'Philosophies' of Adult Education" (Paterson); "Adult Learning in Non-Formal Settings" (Percy); "Systematising Literary Fiction and Nonfiction as Sources of Data for Adult Education Research" (Quigley); "Potential Impacts of Technology on Education of the Nontraditional Female Student" (Rising); "Paradigms and Ideology in

Participation Research" (Rubenson); "Best and Worst Classroom Learning Experiences of Adult Learners" (Sheckley); "Agenda for Adult Education Research in China" (Simpson); "Exploring Ethics of Professional Practice" (Sork); "Imagery" (Stephens, Korhonen); "Annenberg/Corporation for Public Broadcasting Project's Support of Distance Education" (Takemoto); "The Clearing: Danish Folk School for New World" (Takemoto); "Educational Guidance for Adults in U.K." (Taylor); "Enterprise Culture and Restructuring of British Adult Education" (Westwood); "Computer Educational Programs in Swedish Adult Education" (Winter); "Informal Adult Learning Networks in Climate of Social and Economic Change" (Withnall); "Counselling Role of Tutor in Adult Continuing Education" (Wootton); and "Welfare-to-Work and Adult Education" (Zacharakis-Jutz). Summaries of six symposia are also included. (YLB)

****
*   Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made   *
*   from the original document.   *
****

STANDING CONFERENCE ON UNIVERSITY TEACHING AND RESEARCH IN THE EDUCATION OF ADULTS
[SCUTREA]

ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH CONFERENCE
[AERC]

CANADIAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY OF ADULT EDUCATION
[CASAE]

PAPERS FROM THE

TRANSATLANTIC DIALOGUE

University of Leeds
July 11-13, 1988

EDITOR: Miriam Zukas

Published by:

School of Continuing Education
University of Leeds

©SCUTREA 1988

Further copies available from:

Hilary Helme
Department of Continued Professional Education
University of Leeds
United Kingdom LS2 9JT

Price: £15.00 inc. postage

WELCOME

The TransAtlantic Dialogue [TAD] is a joint conference between SCUTREA [Standing Conference on University Teaching and Research in the Education of Adults], AERC [Adult Education Research Conference] and CASAE [Canadian Association for the Study of Adult Education]. It arose out of a series of exchanges between members of the North American AERC, the Commission of Professors of the American Association of Adult Continuing Education [AAACE] and the British SCUTREA. In 1985, the Commission of Professors [AAACE] was awarded a grant by the W.K.Kellogg Foundation to encourage short-term exchanges between lecturers in Britain and North America with the emphasis on new lecturers who had had less than four years as lecturers. Other funds came from the British Council, SCUTREA and many universities.

Over the next two years, twenty-one lecturers were selected and participated in a national conference abroad and visited two or three universities during a fortnight's trip. This group solicited the support of SCUTREA, AERC and CASAE to be co-sponsors of an international research conference based around the eighteenth annual conference of SCUTREA. A further grant from the Kellogg Foundation has facilitated international participation in the conference. The TAD represents the culmination of that activity.

The conference includes over ninety papers, involving well over a hundred presenters. As the papers were submitted and accepted a number of themes began to emerge. It is around these themes that the conference has been organised:

Comparative and International Issues
Research Frameworks
Theory and Practice
Teaching and Learning
Social Purpose and Policy Issues
Cultural Issues
Gender Issues
Professional Education and Training

Many people and organisations have been involved in the preparation for this conference and we cannot list them all. We thank them and hope the conference will continue the international dialogue between adult education researchers.

Miriam Zukas
University of Leeds
June 1988

STANDING CONFERENCE ON UNIVERSITY TEACHING AND RESEARCH IN THE EDUCATION OF ADULTS

SCUTREA's objective is to further the study of and research into the education of adults.

By means of its annual conferences, seminars, study groups and published papers, it provides an opportunity for adult educators to share experiences and to discuss research priorities.

Membership is open to United Kingdom and Eire university departments and institutions which provide courses in adult education leading to awards of those universities; or to individuals and departments undertaking regular and substantial research projects in the field of adult education.

Chair:
Sallie Westwood
Department of Adult Education
University of Leicester
Leicester LE1 7RH

Hon Secretary:
Alan Wellings
Division of Continuing Education
University of Sheffield
Broomspring House
85 Wilkinson Street
Sheffield S10 2GJ

Further information about SCUTREA may be obtained from Alan Wellings.

Some copies of previous conference papers are still available and may be obtained from Alan Wellings.

ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH CONFERENCE

AERC's purpose is to promote the improvement of research and evaluation in adult education, and to foster professional collaboration among scholars who promote research, conduct research, or utilise research findings in the field of adult education.

1988 Steering Committee:

Adele Chene [University of Montreal]
Linda Lewis [University of Connecticut]
Larry Martin, *Chair* [University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee]
Robert Mason [Northern Illinois University]

CANADIAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY OF ADULT EDUCATION

CASAE's aims and functions include

1. To promote the study of and research in adult education.

2. To promote the effectiveness of the means by which research is conducted.

3. To make the results of study and research more accessible by all means of publication, translation into both official languages and bibliographical services.

4. To promote communication among those involved in the study of and research in adult education.

5. To develop effective communication with those engaged in study and research in related areas.

1988 Officers:

President	Jeannine Roy [University of Ottawa]
Secretary	Beverly DuGas [University of Ottawa]
Treasurer	Knute Buttedahl [Ottawa]

TRANSATLANTIC DIALOGUE

University of Leeds

Conference Chair	Miriam Zukas
Conference Administrator	Cornelia Shirley
Conference Secretary	Hilary Helme
Programme Planning Group	Paul Armstrong [FEU/Hull] Barry Bright [Hull] Ian Haffenden [Surrey] David Jones [Nottingham] Athalinda MacIntosh [Surrey] Nod Miller [Manchester] Alan Wellings [Sheffield] Sallie Westwood [Leicester] Miriam Zukas [Leeds]
Assistant to the Conference Chair	Mary-Jane (MJ) Morgan

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Papers Presented:		Page
Paula Allman **John Wallis**	Karl Marx's Theoretical Contributions to Radical Adult Education	1
Paul Armstrong	Educating the Educators: Sociology for Technicism or Critical Reflexiveness?	9
Xue-Ming Bao	A Comparative Study of the Philosophical Foundations of Adult Education in China and the United States	15
Shirley Lake Barber	Ethical Value Dilemmas of Professional Adult Educators in the Co-operative Extension Service	21
H. K. Baskett **D. R. Garrison**	Generating Research Ideas in Adult Education: A Study of the Most Prolific North American Adult Education Researchers	27
Hal Beder	A Typology of the ABE Learner as Derived through Quantitative Induction	33
Nancy O. Berger	The Reality of Fiction: An Exploration of Adult Development Through French Literature	38
Nick Boreham	Models of Expert Judgement: The Hidden Assumptions of Professional Education	44
Roger Boshier	The Perils and Pleasures of 'Human Capital' Approaches to Adult Education: The Case of Singapore	50
Marcie Boucouvalas	An Analysis and Critique of the Concept of Self in Self-Directed Learning: Toward a More Robust Construct for Research and Practice	56
Breda Murphy Bova **Rebecca R. Phillips**	Hispanic Women at Mid-Life: A Study of Conflicts	62
S. Gregory Bowes	An Innovative Staff Development Programme at the University of San Carlos, Guatemala: The Masters' in University Teaching	68
Barry Bright	Epistemological Vandalism: Psychology in the Study of Adult Education	72

Ronald Cervero	The Politics of Professionalism: An Analysis of Competing Conceptions of Continuing Professional Education	79
Adele Chene	Relational Aspects of the Education of Older Adults	84
Chere Campbell Coggins	Impact of Adults' Preferred Learning Styles and Perception of Barriers on Completion of External Baccalaureate Degree Programme	90
Gary J. Conti Robert A. Fellenz	Teacher Actions that Influence Native American Learners	96
Peter S. Cookson	International Adult Education Co-operation and Exchange: Views from 14 Countries	102
Harlan G. Copeland Shirley L. Barber	Assessing the Future of Urban Extension Education Through Focus Group Interviews	108
Bradley C. Courtenay Gregory W. Arnold	The Importance of Participant Input in Programme Planning: Testing a Myth?	114
Claudia Danis	Revision of Self-Directed Learning Models in the Light of Self-Taught Adults' Learning Experiences	120
Gordon G. Darkenwald	Comparison of Deterrents to Adult Education Participation in Britain and the United States	126
Gordon G. Darkenwald	Attitudes Toward Adult Education in Britain and the United States	131
David Deshler	Concept Maps as Heuristic Tools for Comparative Analysis of Documents	136
Christine Edwards	Adult Education and the Needs of the Unemployed in Britain	142
Karen Evans Ian Haffenden	Reaching Out to the Needs of the Trainers	147
Charlotte Webb Farr Charles E. Moon	New Perspectives in Adult Basic Education: The Implications of Field Dependence/Independence in the Light of Sternberg's Triarchic Theory of Intelligence	154
Emilye Hunter Fields	The Etiology of Stress upon the Adult Learner of Afro-American Descent: Its Effect upon Retention in an Adult Education Program	160

Matthias Finger	Hermeneutics, Critical Theory and the Biographical Method as an Alternative in Adult Education Research	166
Colin Fletcher **Keith Fullman** **Mary Hedderwick**	A Framework for Practitioner Research	172
Colin Griffin	Critical Thinking and Critical Theory in Adult Education	176
Michael J. Havercamp	Learning and Involvement in the Research Discernment Process by Community Members	181
Jane M. Hugo	Educating for War and Peace: A Women's Club Response to Two World Wars	187
Clifford O. Ihejieto-Aharanwa	National Educational Communications Infra-structure: A Case Study of Nigerian Adult Learners	193
Peter Jarvis	Needs, Interests and Adult Learning	200
Paul Jeffcutt	Culture and Symbolism in Transient Organisations: A Study in the Training of Unemployed Adults in the UK	206
Gwendolyn Kaltoft	Music as a Facilitator of Adult Learning	212
Patrick Keane **Michael Stephens** **Harold Stubblefield**	An ABC of Independent Study: American, British and Canadian Perspectives	218
Feroz Khan	The Inner City Context and Generation of Curricula	222
Staffan Larsson **Joyce Stalker Costin**	Swedish Snaps and Canadian Cider: A Comparative Study of the Meanings of Adult Education	226
Michael Law **Kjell Rubenson**	Andragogy: The Return of the Jedi	232
Linda H. Lewis **Marcia A. Delcourt**	Adult Basic Education Students' Attitudes Toward Computers	238
Linda H. Lewis **Christine A. Murphy**	Utilisation of Quantitative and Qualitative Methods in Evaluating Educational Software for use with Adult Learners	243

Wendy Luttrell	Different Women's Ways of Knowing: A Feminist Perspective on the Intersection of Gender, Race and Class in the Social Construction of Knowledge	249
John McIlroy **Bruce Spencer**	Universities and Education for Social Purpose	255
Athalinda J. MacIntosh	International Adult Education: Developing a Curriculum Model	260
A. D. McMahon	The Job of Managing Adult Education: A Qualitative Approach to Studying Teams in Action	266
Patricia A. McPartland	Identifying Factors that Facilitate and Impede Learning to Become Physically Fit in the Worksetting	272
Catherine Marineau **Thomas Loesch**	Revisiting Learning Style Theory and Practice	277
Victoria J. Marsick	Action Learning: A Transformative Experience for Managers?	283
Larry G. Martin	A Test of a Tinto's Model of Attrition: as Applied to an Inner City Adult Literacy Program	289
Martha Milk	Results of a Delphi Study: Public Health Education in the year 2010	295
Katherine Moser	An Assessment of Continuing Professional Education in the UK and the US: How Universities are Influenced by their Respective Cultures	301
Jane Munro	Leeds for Dialogue: Poems	305
John A. Niemi	The Development of the Human Resource Developer: A Comparative Analysis of Three Case Studies	311
Richard A. Orem	English Only or English Plus: Language Planning and Implications for Adult Education	317
Rosemarie J. Park **Rebecca Storlie** **Renee Dawis**	The Adult Education Needs of the Structurally Unemployed in the United States	323
R.W.K. Paterson	Philosophy and 'Philosophies' of Adult Education	329
Keith Percy	Adult Learning in Non-Formal Settings	335

John M. Peters	Toward a New Procedure for Learning Project Research	340
Jane Pillinger	Methodological Problems of Small-Scale Community-Based Action Research	346
Daniel D. Pratt	Cross-Cultural Relevance of Selected Psychological Perspectives on Learning	352
B. Allan Quigley	Systematising Literary Fiction and Non-Fiction as Sources of Data for Adult Education Research	358
Melinda J. Rising	The Potential Impacts of Technology on the Education of the Non-traditional Female Student	364
Boyd E. Rossing	Learning From Experience - An Examination of Contributions and Limitations of Two Promising Theories	369
Kjell Rubenson	Paradigms and Ideology in Participation Research - A Comparative Analysis	375
Barry G. Sheckley	The Best and Worst Classroom Learning Experiences of Adult Learners	381
Edwin L. Simpson	An Agenda for Adult Education Research in China: A Cross-Cultural Comparison	387
Thomas J. Sork	Exploring the Ethics of Professional Practice	393
Carolyn B. Stegman	The Effects of Social and Environmental Factors on Informal Teaching-Learning Transactions Between Female Nurses and Female Physicians	399
Rebecca L. Stephens **Lloyd Korhonen**	Imagery: A Treatment for Adult Student Anxiety	404
Harold W. Stubblefield	Social Science Orientations and Adult Education Aims in Early Development of Adult Education in the United States	410
Patricia Akiko Takemoto	The Annenberg/CPB Project's Support of Distance Education Research	416
Patricia Akiko Takemoto	The Clearing: A Danish Folk School for the New World	422

John Taylor	Educational Guidance for Adults in the UK: Developments Through the 1980s	426
Robin Usher	The Practical and the Critical in the Study of Adult Education	432
Karen E. Watkins	An Investigation of Social Learning Constructs of Human Resource Developers Using Argyris's Action Mapping	438
Sallie Westwood	Enterprise Culture and the Re-structuring of British Adult Education	444
Hans A. Winter	Computer Educational Programs (CEP) in Swedish Adult Education	447
Alexandra Withnall	Informal Adult Learning Networks in a Climate of Social and Economic Change: An Analysis	453
Jackie Wootton	The Counselling Role of the Tutor in Adult Continuing Education	459
Jeff Zacharakis-Jutz	Welfare-to-Work and Adult Education	465

Symposia:

Peter S. Cookson **Robert Hoghielm** **Allan Quigley**	New Directions for Participation Research	471
James A. Farmer Jr **H. K. Baskett** **Peter Jarvis** **Helen S. Farmer**	Conceptualising Change and Related Adult Learning in Adult Education Research	485
Barbara M. Florini **Elizabeth C. Oddy** **Rae W. Rohfeld** **Anne Shelly** **Daniel Vertrees**	Knowledge Generation and Exchange in Adult Education	491
Colin Titmus **Stuart Marriott** **Kjell Rubenson**	Adult Education Research and its Relevance to Adult Education Practice	496
Alan Wellings **Jenny Corbett** **David Hutchinson** **David Johnstone** **Alastair Kent**	Perspectives from the UK on Provision for Adult Learners with Disabilities	501

Michael Collins	Adult Education Welfare Reform and the World of Work: A Canadian Perspective	506
Index		507

Karl Marx's Theoretical Contributions to Radical Adult Education

by
Drs. Paula Allman and John Wallis 1988
University of Nottingham

Abstract:

This paper is a highly condensed version of work in progress by the authors on the theoretical contributions of Karl Marx. The radical education context which necessitated a detailed study of Marx is described very briefly. The principal focus of the paper is the explication of three theoretical components, viz. consciousness, ideology and the dialectic, and their inter-relatedness. It is argued that these are essential to the realisation of radical adult education and that they have important implications for an accurate reading and understanding of Marx's economic writings.

In this paper 'radical adult education' will be used in a very precise way. Depending on specific social and historical circumstances, it is either aimed at enabling people to collectively prepare themselves to undertake revolutionary change which would set in motion the 'process of socialism', or it is aimed at enabling people already in that process to bring about a classless, and non-antagonistic, social formation (Larrain, J., 1983). Therefore it could be considered education 'for socialism'; education which prepares people for a transitional phase of human history as well as education appropriate to that phase. Throughout the 20th century a limited number of British adult educators have insisted that Marx's 'theory' must be the essential component of the curriculum for working class education. However the only aspect of his theory which was deemed important was his economic theory of the inner mechanism of capitalism. It is our contention that Marx's economic theory cannot be understood unless other substantive elements of his work are considered. Far worse, Marx's economic theory in isolation becomes a dehistoricised body of content rather than what it actually is, viz. the most essential analytical tool for understanding our present conditions. We would suggest that there are three theoretical components in Marx's writings which must be understood to fully understand and use his economic theory. Furthermore, without these three theoretical components, education for socialism will never be realised. The three components are his 'theory of consciousness', his 'theory of ideology' and his 'theory of the dialectic'. They are all related, and they are all developed in an integrated manner throughout most of his writings.

Our claim as to the essentiality of these 'theories' stems from the lessons we have learned from our attempts to engage in radical educational work with other adults. Three years ago we began working together within what was intended to be a Freirean approach to education. This had been preceded by undertaking a fairly exhaustive study of Paulo Freire's educational work and his philosophy of education (see particularly Freire, P., 1972). Since the context within which his ideas had developed varied considerably from our own, we attempted to identify the assumptions which underpinned his approach and its generalisable features; and then we sought to rework them into our own educational and societal context. We won't go into this in detail here; one of us has written about it elsewhere (Allman, 1987). There are two features of the approach, however, which must be pointed out because it was our struggle to apply these that led us to the essential theories which are the focus of this paper.

A Freirean approach to learning rests upon the transformation of the relations that exist in other forms of education. The transformation of the student-teacher relation is well known but frequently misunderstood. Teachers do not cease being teachers and learners do not cease being learners; they do, however,stop being either the 'exclusive' teacher or the 'exclusive' learners (Freire, 1974). Instead a new relationship is formed between teacher-learners and learner-teacher. However that transformation is absolutely impossible, at least in the way Freire intends, until everyone in the learning situation transforms their relation to knowledge (Ibid.). This involves a new theory of knowledge or an epistemological shift. It was this epistemological transformation which we found initially to be difficult for both ourselves and our co-learners. Only slowly did we come to understand that we would need additional theoretical insights to enable these shifts to take place. In fact it was the pursuit of another question which was to lead us into the realm of theory we needed.

It is not surprising that we, along with probably every other socialist educator in the West, were inquiring in to the reasons why the working class had not developed a revolutionary consciousness. In pursuit of some answer to that question we encountered the current theorising about ideology. Prior to this we had used the term to refer to a set body of ideas or beliefs. However we were to learn that that definition had little explanatory potential; it simply demarcated one ideology from another. On the other hand, a more highly theorised concept of ideology had the potential of explaining how ideological thinking serves to maintain our consent or at least our resignation to our social formation (Hall, S.,1977). We came to understand that some explanations, academic and otherwise, were ideological because they were based on partial or fragmented aspects of our reality. As a consequence they served to conceal real social contradictions - to keep apart things which were in fact related and dependant upon one another (Larrain, J., 1983), and which could only be truly understood within that relation, eg teachers and learners or wealth and poverty. Ideological explanations were therefore not false. They had to hook into our reality, but because they were partial they distorted our understanding (Hall, S., 1982).

Within our attempts to engage in Freirean dialogue, we began to practice 'ideology critique' (Giroux, H., 1983). We became quite adept in identifying ideological discourses but this was hardly satisfactory. On the basis of our reading we acknowledged that ideology was the result of real contradictions and that therefore only through social practice could it be challenged. We needed a strategy, but the only one offered by the theorists of ideology appeared to be to engaged in 'ideological struggle'. The suggestion was to substitute a more expansive ideology - one which reflected proletarian interests rather than the limiting and exploitative interests of the bourgeoisie (see for example Mouffe, C., 1981; Hall, S., 1982 and Gramsci, A., 1971). However imposing thinking on others was antithetical to our concept of socialism. How could people become the voluntary agents of their own critically conceived destiny - their history - with a view of the world they had not worked out for themselves? It was, in fact, Gramsci (1971) who raised this question:

> ...is it better to think, without critical awareness, in a disjointed and episodic way?...to take part in a conception of the world mechanically imposed...by one of the many social groups in which everyone is automatically involved...Or, on the other hand, is it better to work out consciously and critically one's own conception of the world and thus, in connection with the labours of one's own brain, choose one's sphere of activity, take an active part in the creation of the history of the world,...refusing to accept passively and supinely from outside the molding of one's personality? (p..323)

It became increasingly clear that we needed to come to terms with Marx's dialectic theory and method of analysis. This had enabled him to lay bare the inner mechanisms or the real social contradictions of capitalism. However since capitalism is not static we would need the dialectic to grasp the present movements and developments of the social contradictions. We had to develop an intimate knowledge of these contradictions in order to work out a strategy for change. Therefore it was in order to grasp the dialectic that we went to Marx; little did we anticipate the relation between the dialectic and his other theoretical contributions. Since we were searching for the dialectic, we reasonably started with his economic writings. We found that in the Grundrisse and the four Volumes of Capital we were being told not just how capitalism works but how that working leads to the way both bourgeois economists and people in general think about it. This finding encouraged us to check into what Marx's earlier philosophical writings had to say about consciousness and ideology.

Marx's Theory of Consciousness - A Theory of Praxis

Marx's theory of consciousness is, in fact, a theory of praxis (Kosik, K., 1976 also has suggested this), and this is what makes his and Engels materialism both distinctive and epistemologically and ontologically revolutionary. This theory of praxis developed out of their critique of three areas of thinking current in the 1840's viz. Hegelian and neo-Hegelian idealism, materialism and bourgeois thought in general, in which they included a great deal of socialist thinking. The first problem, as they saw it, with all these types of thinking was a tendency toward dualism or dichotomising - separating things which could only be properly understood within a relation (see Marx, K., 1858 and Marx, K. and Engel, F., 1844 and 1846). Idealism and materialism were but reversals of each other. For example by separating thought or ideas from the real world, idealism assigned temporal priority to ideas and designated them as the creators of the reality. Similarly materialism simply reversed the process and made the real world the origin of ideas. Both however conceived the real world as static either because it had reached its full development or because it had always existed in its current form. Bourgeois thinking in general adhered to either one or the other of these views. The second problem, which relates to the first, is that these ways of thinking are for the most part ahistorical. Perhaps it would be better to say they were not thoroughly historical because they failed to trace the real contradictions which were the truth or essence of current phenomena. According to Marx and Engels, current phenomena were the current result - an historical result - of the development of a real contradiction (Marx and Engels, 1846). Much of their dialectic theory and the distinction between phenomenon and essence were culled from Hegel.However with Hegel dialectic movement was confined to the movement of ideas which he assumed had reached the pinnacle of development in the German State; therefore with Hegel the dialectic remained speculative and ultimately conservative (Sayer, D., 1987). Marx radicalised the dialectic by applying it to the movement of real contradictions in a real world. But more on this later.

Marx and Engels explained that consciousness was the result of real 'sensuous' human activity (Marx and Engels, 1846). It was produced and reproduced simultaneously or in unity with the way people expressed their lives - especially by the ways in which they produced and reproduced their material existence and their species. These modes of expression were historically specific. So far in history, people have been born into relations within which they produce and reproduce their lives; yet these relations and practices are not of their own design. Nevertheless they accept them as natural and inevitable. This form of praxis, the unity of action and thought, is a limited form of praxis. Marx and Engels whole project was about laying the foundations from which people could begin a critical and revolutionary praxis. Critical praxis would entail a new unity between a dialectic grasping of reality and action aimed at consciously transforming relations and material existence. Once Marx and Engels had clarified their own thinking about the formation of ideas (Ibid.), it fell to Marx to carry out the detailed, dialectic analysis of the inner mechanisms, the dialectical contradictions, of the capitalist social formation.

Marx Theory of Ideology

We would argue that, although Marx doesn't use the turn ideology often in his economic writings, the sense of the concept is there together with a materialist explanation of its source (particularly Marx, 1863 and 1867). In his earlier writing as well as the economic texts, Marx does not claim that all thinking within bourgeois society is ideological only that there is a tendency towards ideological explanation. This tendency is due to the way that consciousness is actively produced within real experience together with the nature of that experience within capitalism. If thought tends to divide or separate that which in fact is interdependent, it is because we experience the interdependent components of the relation in a different time and space. For example, the motor force of production under capitalism is the creation and augmentation of profit. Marx carefully explains how the basis of profit, i.e. surplus value, is created in production and sometimes added to within the process of circulation but that commodities pregnant with this surplus must be exchanged for profit to be realised. Therefore profit depends upon the unity of production and exchange (Marx, 1858 and 1847). Since even the workers who produce commodities haved no claim to them, most of everyone's experience of commodities occurs within exchange. Marx (1867) calls this the 'noisy' sphere because it is from within our experience of market relations that all the ideas which justify the system originate - ideas such as equality, freedom and individual choice. We also think that profit is derived from exchange because, in fact, profit continues to be redistributed in this sphere between middlemen or merchants. However the redistribution of money from one person's pockets to another's is only a secondary source of profit-making under capitalism. The real motive force of the system is the augmentation or growth of capital. One person becoming wealthier by outdealing another cannot explain the growth of capital. Marx, of course, explained it by dialectically establishing the necessary relation between production and exchange which was based on an even more essential relation between labour power and capital (Marx, 1865, 1867 and 1878).

From our previous study of ideology, we knew that ideological explanations offered a distorted understanding which served to justify capitalism thereby serving bourgeois interests and the continuation of social contradictions (Larrain, J. 1983). We also knew that they were distorted because they drew upon partial aspects or fragments of reality; therefore distortion was created not by bold lies but partial truths (Hall, S. 1982). As a consequence, the real truth - the contradictions - and, therefore, the totality of determinations which make capitalism and its growth possible were concealed. We also understood that ideology was difficult to challenge because it locked into some real aspect of our experience. However it was only through Marx that we came to understand how and why development of the inherent contradictions of capitalism creates a lived experience and a consciousness, a praxis, which is itself fragmented and partial. We also came to understand more precisely how our own everyday praxis was limited and therefore susceptible to ideological explanation. If we were not to be just as submerged in our social formation as human beings had once been submerged in nature, we needed a different, a more critical way of understanding the reality that we hoped to change. History would only become human history, the conscious choice of human beings, when we could begin to grasp our present and then direct our future dialectically.

Marx's Dialectic - A Theory and a Method

To analyse capitalism dialectically, Marx had to assume that it operated dialectically (Kosik, K., 1976). Whether or not Marx thought that the dialectic was the principle of all development and change is not clear; however he certainly did not dissuade Engels from applying the dialectic to nature. Marx's own energies were devoted to laying bare the dialectical movement of capitalism. The real point here, however, is that whatever the subject matter, one must have a theory that the reality of the subject matter - its principle of change - is dialectical. Unlike many methods of analysis, therefore, the dialectic is dependent upon the content - it is about grasping the movement of the content. This is perhaps why some marxists have been reluctant to use the terms method or logic in connection with the dialectic because a method or a logic is usually defined as being independent from content (Mepham, J. and Ruben, D.H., 1979). They are abstract. However, the dialectic is concrete because it penetrates the world of pseudo-concrete phenomena in order to follow the movement of the real concrete (Kosik, K., 1976).

Since Capital begins with an analysis of the development of the commodity form, many commentators have thought that this, the commodity, was the real object with which Marx began his dialectic investigation. It was not; it was, in fact, the result rather than the origin. Although we cannot evidence this, we are fairly convinced that he began with the question of how M became M', i.e. how did money become capital and why did it in so doing have an augmented value (Marx, 1858)? In each instance of his analysis, he takes a current phenomenon of this social formation and assumes it is an historical result of the relation between two opposites. This relation or unity of two opposites is a dialectical contradiction. Each of these opposites is what it is by virtue of its relation to the other (Colletti, L., 1975). It is the internal relation between the two opposites that determines the development of each. Labour power and capital are a dialectic contradiction because capital could not be M' if it did not extract a surplus value from labour power and labour power would not be the only commodity the worker can sell for an exchange value or wage, which enables labour to obtain the necessities of life, if it did not provide this 'use-value' for capital.

Once Marx identifies a particular dialectic contradiction, he then dialectically splits each of the opposites. For example labour is grasped as use-value, i.e. labour power and exchange value, i.e. the wage; and capital is grasped as constant and variable capital. Each split allows him to trace the historical development of the interdependent opposites. Sometimes further splits are necessary. For example, labour power must be dialectically analysed as paid and unpaid labour to explain the creation of surplus value and the rate of surplus value. The further Marx delved into the historical roots of these inherent contradiction, the more he had to 'fine tune' his concepts. In fact, Marx used concepts dialectically (Sayer, D., 1987) and the failure to understand this has led to the not infrequent bemoaning that he did not offer a clear concept of this or that - but especially 'class'. We think he offered a very clear concept but one which will be missed if not understood dialectically within the real movements of class content. Let's look at how he developed a dialectical presentation of these movements.

When Marx wanted to refer to the over-arching contradiction of capitalism, he referred to the proletariat and capital. The proletariat refers to all those who are employed in the production of surplus value, all those who are employed but who as yet do not produce surplus value but who could, eg. service sector workers or teachers, and the unemployed. When he is analysing the current production of surplus value it refers to productive labour - productive not of a certain product but producers of surplus value. Yet again when he needs to establish the special use value that productive labour has for capital, he employs the concept of labour power (Marx, K., 1858 and 1867). He wasn't changing his mind but was using concepts in a dialectically specific way, re-establishing in each instance the relation which must be grasped as the essence of each determination. Although he never stated it, we think Marx realised that human language, composed of singular words, actually serves to create static, non-fluid concepts - incapable of grasping their relational source and movement.

Why didn't Marx take time to write about his dialectic way of grasping - analysing - a dialectic reality? We can only speculate. For example there may have been more pressing demands on his time. Perhaps the more he came to understand the movements and developments of capitalism, the more he understood that in the absence of a revolutionary working class rather than socialism, a barbaric and sophisticated form of feudalistic capitalism could be the necessary consequence. He might have anticipated the rise of imperialism and transnational capitalism and felt that time was running out. Perhaps this was why he began to contemplate the possibility of a society developing the forces of production by some means other than capitalism (Marx, K., 1877 and 1882). In passing, if applying the description 'sophisticated feudalism' to transnational capital sounds rather bizarre, spend some time analysing the movements of transnational capital and the relocation of power outside of nation states. We would suggest that you will find that nation states have become increasingly subservient to the needs of this form of capital.

Yet another factor which demanded his time and energy, and which may have, therefore, deflected his attention from writing about his dialectic, was his awareness of a paradox which his own theories revealed. He must have known that his readers would read Capital with a bourgeois consciousness that would tend to separate the economic analysis from the other theoretical components. It has been well documented that he drafted and re-drafted Vol.1 and then revised each addition because of his concern over the clarity of the presentation. Therefore he must have assumed that he could find a way of presenting Capital that would prevent a bourgeois reading of it.

Alternatively, time and other demands may have had nothing to do with Marx not writing about the dialectic. Advances in scientific thought are never simply about quantitative additions to what is already known. The big advances equally involve qualitative changes in the way the subject is understood (Tolman, 1981). Marx's application of Hegel's dialectic theory to real contradictions clearly produced such an advance. However it may be possible for a thinker's way of thinking to change dramatically without the person involved being able to fully articulate the crucial qualitative differences. In Marx's case, however, it seems more likely to us that the real reason for the absence of Marx's explanation of the dialectic was that he didn't think it was absent.

Earlier in this paper we mentioned that the dialectic, unlike other methods, is concrete because it is dependent on its content; it is about grasping the dialectical movement and development of the content. Therefore by depicting the dialectic movement of capitalism in his time, Marx was also depicting a material or concrete way of understanding and analysing it. The 'method' must be observed in its relation to its content because its procedures follow the rules of the content rather than existing outside and independent from it. Since the use of the method is premised upon the assumption that the principle of movement and change in the content is dialectical, all that we actually needed from Marx was a detailed description of a dialectic reality. In fact, this is precisely what he have us in Capital.

From what we have said about the contribution of Marx's thought to radical education, the necessity to engage in critical praxis appears central.If consciousness steeped in ideology is to be transcended, the social contradictions that lie at its heart must be resolved in reality. The degrees of freedom for educators to achieve such work will vary. For some the social relations within the learning group may be the only arena in which 'prefigurative' initiatives may be attempted; for others greater potential may exist. However, the struggle to develop a critical consciousness in terms of the above definitions may help us to recognise radical education when we see it.

References

ALLMANN, P. (1987) "Paulo Freire's Educational Approach: A Struggle for Meaning," Ch.12 in Allen, G. et al (Eds) Community Education: An Agenda for Educational Reform. Milton Keynes: Open University Press, pp. 214-237.
COLLETI, L. (1975) "Marxism and the Dialectic," New Left Review, No. 93, September-October, p.4
FREIRE, P. (1972) Pedagogy of the Oppressed. Harmondsworth, England: Penguin
FREIRE, P. (1974) Authority vs. Authoritarianism audio-tape series - "Thinking with Paulo Freire", Sydney: Australian Council of Churches.
GIROUX, H. (1983) Theory and Resistance in Education: A Pedagogy for the Opposition. London: Heinemann.
GRAMSCI, A. Selections from the Prison Notebooks Ed. and Trans. by Hoare, Q. and Smith, G.N.. London: Lawrence and Wishart.
HALL, S. (1978) "The Hinterland of Science: Ideology and the 'Sociology of Knowledge'" in C.C.C.S. (Eds) On Ideology London: Hutchinson.
HALL, S. (1982) Managing Conflict, Producing Consent. Unit 21 in the Open University Social Science Foundation Course - D102, Milton Keynes: The Open University Press.
KOSIK, K. (1976) Dialectics of the Concrete: A Study on Problems of Man and World Dordrecht, Holland: Reidel.
LARRAIN, J. (1983) Marxism and Ideology London: Macmillan.
MARX, K. (1858) Grundrisse Harmondsworth, England: Penguin, 1973.
MARX, K. (1963a,b,c,) Theories of Surplus Value, 3 parts or volumes, Moscow: Progress,
MARX, K. (1865) Capital Vol.3. Harmondsworth, England: Penguin, 1981.
MARX, K. (1867) Capital Vol.1. Harmondsworth, England: Penguin, 1976.
MARX, K. (1878) Capital Vol.2. Harmondsworth, England: Penguin, 1978.
MARX, K. (1877) "Letter to Mikhailousky" in McLellan, D. (Ed.) Karl Marx: Selected Writings Oxford, England: Oxford University Press, 1977, p. 471-422
MARX, K. (1882) "Preface to the Russian Edition of the Communist Manifesto," in McLellan, D., Ibid., pp. 583-584.
MARX, K. and ENGELS, F. (1844) The Holy Family Moscow: Foreign Language Publishing House, 1956.
MARX, K. and ENGELS, F. (1846) The German Ideology Parts I and II London: Lawrence and Wishart, 1938.
MEPHAM, J. and RUBEN, D.H. (Eds) (1979) Issues in Marxist Philosophy Vol.I. Dialectics and Method Brighton, England: Harvester.
MOUFFE, C. (1981) "Hegemony and Ideology in Gramsci," in Bennett, T. et.al. (eds) Culture, Ideology and Social Practice. London: Batsford in association with the Open University, pp. 219-234.
SAYER, D. (1987) The Violence of Abstraction. Oxford, England: Basil Blackwell.
TOLMAN, C. (1981) "The Metaphysics of Relations in Klau Riegel's 'Dialectics' of Human Development," Human Development, 24, pp. 33-51.

N.B. We have adopted Derek Sayer's method of dating Marx's writing according to the last known date of composition rather than the date of first publication.

EDUCATING THE EDUCATORS: SOCIOLOGY FOR TECHNICISM OR CRITICAL REFLEXIVENESS?

Paul Armstrong
Further Education Unit/University of Hull

This paper seeks to discuss the place of sociology in graduate adult education programmes in Britain and America. The argument of the paper is that particularly in America and increasingly in Britain, sociology is conceived of as a discipline that ought to be relevant to the teacher of adults, and that ought to contribute to the improved performance of teachers. However, such conceptions of sociology are misguided and built on false epistemological assumptions about the nature of sociology. An alternative conception stresses the importance of structure, process rather than product, praxis rather than practice, and critical reflexiveness rather than technicism.

This paper seeks to discuss the place of sociology in teacher training and adult education programmes. In recent years, in both Britain and the United States, there has been growing acceptance of the place of sociology as a core discipline in the curricula of such training courses. Indeed, this is not peculiar to teaching but is part of a general trend in many professional and vocational training programmes, even those of the long-established, powerful and prestigious professions such as law and medicine. However, there has not been unequivocal support for its inclusion in professional education and training curricula. The relevance of an academic and relatively new discipline like sociology has been subject to much debate. Many claims and counter-claims have been put forward in its defence and against its inclusion. Such claims and counter-claims, however, are built on mythical notions as to the nature of sociology.

In order to review the debate, it is first of all necessary to demythologise sociology as a discipline. This has to be carried out in two inter-related spheres: in epistemology and in politics, for the myths surround the utility and relevance of sociology as a discipline for the training of adult educators, and the nature of its bias. These two areas of debate typically overlap insofar as the epistemological arguments in the case against the inclusion of sociology in training courses frequently emanate from particular political positions that believe the discipline to be prone to bias, if not explicitly subversive.

It is the argument of this paper that such claims are misleading, and a closer examination of the nature of sociology as it is taught on such training courses rarely fulfils the expectations of the critics. The point has been made in respect of the training of health visitors:

> ... it is not true that most sociology is overcritical of the family, religion and the dominant morality. Most sociology affirms and applauds the alleged crucial role of the family in preserving the status quo for the benefit of all .... Far from being a radical left-wing discipline or subject, sociology is a conservative one ... Radical sociology is a minority occupation.[1]

Until the 1970s, the dominant perspectives within sociology, including within the sociology of education, were not characterised by critical reflexiveness. Much sociology, stemming from its nineteenth century origins in the work of Comte, Durkheim and Spencer, and carried through into the twentieth century by American functionalists such as Parsons and Merton rarely raised critical questions about the nature of society or the process of social change. The focal questions were on the possibility of social order and consensus. Although critical perspectives have been available during the whole history of sociology it was not until the late 1960s that such perspectives began to be influential to any degree. Moreover, these alternative perspectives were rarely presented in textbooks or on sociology courses to allow students the opportunity to review the main assumptions and ideological nature of the whole range of sociological perspectives. Indeed, right up until the 1960s it was possible to talk about *the* sociological perspective, by which was meant structural functionalism.

---

[1] Robert Kornreich, 'The relevance of sociology to health visiting - which type of sociology? Which type of health visiting?' Health Visitor, vol. 50, August 1977; p. 264

Applied to education and teaching training courses, this perspective focussed attention of the positive contribution that sociology could make to the maintenance of social order, in terms of both morality and the economy. Education was perceived as a social subsystem that assisted the continuation of the social system. The political economy of that system was rarely examined, and the ethos of the discipline, assuming harmonious systems in equilibrium, stressing consensus, was never reflective of the nature of the society it sought to understand, which was torn asunder by war, poverty, crime and other forms of social problems and social inequalities.

It was inevitable, therefore, that social analysts would lose faith with a sociology that was characterised by idealism and abstract theorising, rather than having applicability to the real world with real problems, and from the 1960s there was a reaction against the dominant perspective within sociology, so that it was no longer tenable to talk about *the* sociological perspective, but rather a range of sociological perspectives, often distinguished by fundamentally different assumptions and ideologies. Of course, it was also inevitable that such alternative perspectives would be criticised as having bias. It was not merely that they were built on different beliefs and ideas, but the newer perspectives took cognisance of political economy, and therefore became overtly political, whereas mainstream sociology had hitherto hidden behind the pretence of value freedom and objectivity.

It is precisely at this point that the interlinking with issues of epistemology becomes apparent for the very nature of the discipline of sociology was brought into question. The dominant ideology in sociology made claims that sociology was a social science, and as such had much in common with the natural sciences, and indeed attempted to copy the basic characteristics of what was understood as the essence of science, one of which was objectivity. Throughout the nineteenth and first half of the twentieth centuries sociologists sought to establish their claims to be scientists, and were concerned to establish laws of a social nature that could be explained through sociological study alone. They spent much time attempting to negotiate boundaries with psychology, economics and other disciplines in order to justify the distinctive subject matter of sociology. In doing so, they managed to dehumanise that subject matter, and the social laws established tended to be deterministic, reified and abstract. Notions of the relevance of sociology rested in empiricist research - the collection of 'social facts' devoid of any explicitly formulated theoretical model.

Yet, paradoxically, it was increasingly felt that the discipline of sociology should be of vital relevance, and it is perhaps no coincidence that the rapid expansion of the discipline of sociology in higher education, particularly in Britain, happened at precisely the time the dominant perspective of structural functionalism within sociology was being challenged. There is not a simple causal link here, for the popularisation of sociology certainly assisted in the development of critical awareness within the discipline, and more was expected of sociology than previously.

Within education and the training of educators, including adult educators there was still scepticism of the value of sociology for the practitioners. Even though there was no evidence that sociology was a subversive subject, especially when structural functionalism dominated, there was an irrational fear that it was. But by the 1960s, it had become a firmly established discipline, a behavioural science with strong epistemological foundations and methods of justification in the pursuit of truth that could assist in the understanding of the world that people like educators had to practise in. Within education, this coincided with a 'revolution' in the philosophy of education, which was no longer viewed as a unitary discipline, but a field to which several other disciplines such as history, philosophy, psychology and now sociology could contribute to.[2]

Although there was some initial resistance to the introduction of sociology into the teaching of education, within a few years the subject was to become an integral part of teacher training programmes. A number of justifications had been put forward. To begin with, it was now recognised that education does not take place in a social vacuum, and that it was necessary for educators to begin to take a broader view of their role in society. Secondly, there was the argument that as one of the contributing disciplines, sociology has as much chance as any other discipline of educating the student teacher[3]. It should be said that both these stress the *education* as opposed to the *training* of educators. If sociology is to be justified in terms of training, as making a contribution to the technical skills of teaching, then it has to be done in terms of immediate utility and relevance. It has been suggested that before the development of the sociology of education in the 1950s and 1960s, the term 'educational sociology' was used to refer to the use of sociology to illuminate practical and technical aspects of teaching. This often took a normative approach, and was characteristic of the way sociology influenced education in America[4]. Educationalists are typically concerned with the practical activity of educating, and sociological evidence is drawn on only if useful in improving practice. Taylor sees this as a potential danger, for when insights are brought to bear in the training of educators they have usually supported an educational philosophy, or an educationalist's point of view. However, McNamara believes that the point is to make these philosophies more explicit rather than moving away from a utilitarian view of sociology in education. McNamara has a number of arguments against the inclusion of sociology in education, particularly if it is conceived in broader educational aims. He says that in the field of education, there is more than enough professional material, skills and technology to teach to student teachers without spending time on abstract sociological theories. He argues for a more technicist approach that stresses the development of competence and skill acquisition that would make intending educators more effective in their role. An example of this would be the study of roles in organisations, such as the role of the teacher in an educational institution, in order to understand the mechanisms and structures which operate - not to change them - but to facilitate the performance of the role of teacher within an existing organisation. For McNamara the inclusion of sociology on professional education courses can only be justified in terms of narrow technicist training that contributes to the competence of educators.

---

[2] P.H.Hirst, 'Philosophy and educational theory' British Journal of Educational Studies, 1963; and 'The two cultures, science and moral education' Education for Teaching, no. 67, 1965

Not surprisingly, McNamara's views were not well received by other sociologists working within education. For example, Culley and Demaine responded by stating that McNamara is setting up a false dichotomy between 'theoretical' and 'practical' training:

> whilst training to be good technicians is essential, it is also important to prepare them to understand the background to the teaching/learning situation in which they find themselves, and the nature of society, of which education is a central part.[5]

Similarly. Musgrave has argued that 'a study of sociology can educate a student in the fullest sense as well as any other discipline,', but sociology may encourage educators to develop a sociological frame of reference that might lead them to begin to question concepts and evidence, even though this may lead 'to considerable doubt and personal conflict'. But says Musgrave,

> This is no condemnation if we want our teachers to be questioning beings. Indeed, courses in any discipline will only be as good as much as they have this disturbing effect.[6]

However, there are two problems related to this. To begin with, not all may agree that to have questioning or critical educators is necessarily desirable. In support of his arguments against the inclusion of sociology in teacher education curricula, McNamara cites the work of Philip Jackson[7], who discovered through interviews with highly respected members of the teaching profession, that 'successful' teaching runs counter to the aims and aspirations of sociology courses which seek to develop a critical mode of thought, because the pressures on the teachers' role rarely allow the opportunity for critical reflection, and a sociological frame of reference may be 'disfunctional' for the teachers' role. In McNamara's summary he says

---

[3] P.W.Musgrave, 'Sociology in the training of teachers' Aspects of Education, no. 3, 1965; p. 45

[4] William Taylor, 'The sociology of education' in J.W.Tibble (ed), The Study of Education (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1966); and D.R.McNamara, 'Sociology of education and the education of teachers', British Journal of Educational Studies, vol. 20, no. 2, 1972; pp. 137-147

[5] L.Culley and J.Demaine, 'Sociology of education and the education of teachers: a critique of D.R.McNamara' Educational Studies, vol. 4, no. 3, October 1978; p. 221

[6] P.W.Musgrave, 'Syllabuses and teaching methods for sociology in colleges of education' Education for Teaching, no. 68, 1965; pp. 47, 54

> teacher's talk is characterised by conceptual simplicity, four aspects of which are: (1) an uncomplicated view of causality; (2) an intuitive, rather than rational approach to classroom events; (3) an opinionated, as opposed to an open-minded, stance when confronted with alternative teaching practices; and (4) a narrowness in the working definitions assigned to abstract terms.[8]

Thus, it is unlikely that students 'would become better teachers as a consequence' of studying sociology.

The second problem related to the development of critical thinking among teachers is that not all sociology inevitably leads to this; not all sociology seeks to challenge the *status quo* or is radical in nature. As we have said, traditional sociology of education, far from raising critical consciousness, encouraged taken for granted assumptions about the social system, and it is precisely from within that perspective of functionalism, that a technicist approach to the study of education and teaching could enhance the technical skills of the teacher. Educating for critical consciousness is a relatively recent phenomenon, and has been facilitated by the emergence of the 'new sociology of education' in the early 1970s in Britain. Initially, this 'new' perspective constituted interactionist and phenomenological perspectives that had become popular in mainstream sociology a few years' previous. But within a short space of time these perspectives had been extended and, to some extent, replaced by conflict or critical approaches, emanating from a Marxist tradition, or from the Frankfurt School of critical theory, or from a synthesis of the two. That this was so was demonstrated by the emergence of a new range of textbooks in the sociology of education that were to replace the structural functionalist educational sociology texts of the 1950s and 1960s. The new texts not merely served to present alternative perspectives in the sociology of education, but emphasises the fact that it was no longer tenable to talk about the sociology of education, but sociological perspectives.

However, this became a problem in itself. Much sociology of education, rather than encouraging critically reflective practice, focused in on itself, and the danger is that sociology is used to understand other sociologies, not societies:

> Many students today use the sociology they are given to work over other sociologies.[9]

It is at this point that we may concur with McNamara's concern with sociology being an abstract intellectual exercise, a rigorous and demanding course of study, requiring an understanding of the issues and problems within sociology itself before attempting to apply it to fields in education. Such criticisms may be levelled at the critical theories that have developed within the Frankfurt School, as well as many varieties of Marxism. Whilst such theorising is a necessary part of the process, it is not the end of it. To remain at the level of abstract theorising, as sociological perspectives do, serves to emasculate their own power to contribute to the development of critical consciousness, which can only be evolved in practice as well as theory.

Thus, sociology, far from being subversive of the dominant ideology, has either been a form of technicism or abstract theorising, and has inadvertently served more to reproduce the inequalities of the social structure due to its failure to lead to practical action. In the United States, the use of sociology has tended towards the technicist, utilitarian approach, rooted within structural functionalism of the Parsonian variety, with little recognition of the existence of alternative perspectives:

---

[7] P.W.Jackson, Life in Classrooms (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968)

[8] McNamara, op. cit; p. 146

[9] M.D.Shipman, 'Reflections on early courses' in I.Reid and E.Wormald (eds), Sociology and Teacher Education (Sociology Section of the Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education, 1974); p. 13

> If it is not too cynical to claim that it was the ideology within structural functionalism that sold it to conservative America and which helped it to become an acceptable framework for the sociology taught in conservative teacher education establishments, then revised if not new approaches which emphasise the uniqueness of situations and which carve a place for the individual self, will be quickly assimilated into professional areas where such an understanding is traditional and perhaps utilitarian.[10]

In Britain, it would be fair to say that even within the sociology of adult education there is now some recognition of alternative perspectives, even though many of the authors still seem to subscribe to traditional sociological perspectives, or eclecticism.

A postal survey of the teaching of sociology on postgraduate adult education programmes in all British university adult education departments generated only four replies. One of these indicated that sociology of education was not taught *per se*, but a sociological approach was taken to adult education policies and issues, though which sociological approach was not specified. Another, interestingly, claimed not to teach 'perspectivism' as this was considered vulgar. The other two courses recommended textbooks written by their own lecturers. In one of these, sociology of adult and continuing education constituted a mere one-eighth of the core course, but in that time attempted to convey both a 'macro' and a 'micro' approach, and 'at least 5-6 different schools of thought as they relate to the training of educators of adults', and use a textbook which is rooted in functionalist ideas, though lip-service was paid to other theoretical perspectives in a simplistic way[11].

The fourth reply described sociology of adult education as an 'integral' part of the Masters course, being half of two different options, which seek to 'understand both social systems and social action perspectives as a basis to interpreting theory, policy and practice in continuing education and the experience of adult learners returning to study'. The course aims to teach different sociological perspectives, but not 'left wing rhetoric'. Rather, 'sociology is useful as a conceptual framework and analytic tool which can be used in a reasonably neutral way'. The recommended course text offers a promising title, *Social Theory Perspectives on Adult Education*. However, upon close scrutiny only the final part of the first section of the book (Chapters Seven and Eight) is devoted to examining adult education from a sociological perspective. The early parts of the book are a mixture of political and philosophical perspectives, with an emphasis on social welfare models, which are not helpfully related to adult education, unless one is specifically interested in the issue of participation. Nor is any explicatory framework offered to the reader to assist in making sense of these different ways of analysing adult education. When the author does come to introduce the reader to the writings of Durkheim, Parsons, Marx and Weber, the analysis is imprecise and patchy; nor does he relate their writings on education in any systematic way to adult education. Furthermore, in the third section of the book, the attention shifts to 'the sociology of the adult student', and with it comes a focus on the interactionist or phenomenological perspectives, and there is some comparison with Parsonian systems theory. But these ideas are dealt with in a cursory way, and with no justification of the shift between taking a 'macro' and a 'micro' perspective. In short, the book has leanings towards a liberal and eclectic pragmatism, as the author implies in his introduction:

> It is worth stressing at this point that this book is not designed to tender any personally favoured school of thought. It is best to declare bias although by no means do I believe everything I once thought. Nor am I against pragmatism. I favour the view that it is intelligent to try different ideas in a practical way to see

---

[10] I.Reid, 'Sociology in colleges of education: some considerations' in I.Reid and E.Wormald (eds) op. cit; p. 13

[11] P. Jarvis, The Sociology of Adult and Continuing Education (London: Croom Helm, 1985)

> if they work rather than operate exclusively from a fixed theoretical perspective. My personal experience is that people who insist, for example, on a radical perspective on adult education sometimes allow their prejudices, dogma and intolerance too get the better of the need of work with all kinds of people and points of view.[12]

Such a view is what Frank Youngman refers to as 'naive eclecticism'[13]. Whereas 'sophisticated eclecticism' in adult education consciously attempts to synthesise different theories in a coherent way, the 'naive' version 'does not exhibit this self-consciously theoretical stance', but rather, using Hilgard and Bower's analogy

> stocks a kind of medicine cabinet with aids to solve the problems of the teacher. When a problem arises, the teacher can take a psychological principle from the cabinet and apply it like a bandage or an ointment to solve the educational problem.[14]

There is no concern for theoretical consistency or philosophical acceptability, but merely with effectiveness in practice. The underlying assumptions behind the principles and methods, providing they are ideologically sound, are conveniently ignored. The problematic feature of this is that it unknowingly brings together what are fundamentally incompatible theories, and lead to a 'patchwork' of principles and practice. As Youngman argues:

> This in my view is the most typical approach of conventional adult education and it reflects a tendency to atheoretical pragmatism which, in turn, conceals an ideology of liberalism.[15]

There is little doubt that Elsey's textbook reflects the dominant liberal ideology, and although he states that he is not taking sides with any one perspective, he is clearly against the 'radical' perspective insofar as it is prejudiced, dogmatic and intolerant. The critical perspective, which we have previously suggested is but one version of sociology, is accused of bias, whereas liberal, eclectic pragmatism is supposedly atheoretical, unbiased and without ideology. These arguments begin to get complex and abstract, and as textbooks get closer to something approximating an adequate reflection of the nature of sociology and a range of sociological perspectives, they inevitably should also become more complex and abstract, and even though the authors in each case try hard to make their examples relevant to the adult educator, the theory is somewhat divorced from practical action.

Educators need to act in a conscious and deliberate way if they are to change the society in which they live and work. Maintenance of the status quo can be achieved through technicism or unconscious action as well as through deliberate action in cases where they believe that the society is essentially worth preserving as it is. This conscious action requires a commitment to a consistent theoretical perspective which is to inform their actions. In Marxism, the notion of praxis has been reserved for describing the dialectical relationship between thought and action so that when we engage in practical activity we have theoretical consciousness of it, and whilst engaged in the activity are able to reflect upon it. This focus on praxis and its significance for those in education and adult education stems not only from a sociological perspective, but issues from other disciplines that contribute to educating the educators. Sociology is but one possible vehicle for leading to the development of a critical consciousness that informs critical action, and as has been argued, not all sociology necessarily leads in this direction.

---

[12] B.Elsey, op.cit; p.2

[13] F.Youngman, Adult Education and Socialist Pedagogy (London: Croom Helm, 1986); pp. 140-145

[14] G.H.Bower and E.R.Hilgard, Theories of Learning (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1981); p.537; quoted by Youngman, op.cit; p. 142

[15] ibid; p.144

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS OF ADULT EDUCATION IN CHINA AND IN THE UNITED STATES

XUE-MING BAO
NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY[1]

Abstract. This study briefly compares and contrasts the philosophical foundations of adult education in China and in the United States with special reference to aims and objectives. Implications are also drawn from the perspectives of what adult educators in China and the United States can learn from each other in the practices of adult education.

Introduction. The purpose of this study is to explore the similarities and differences between the philosophical foundations of adult education in China and in the United States. The organizing constructs are drawn from the aims and objectives which provide a conceptual framework for investigating the nature of the philosophical foundations of adult education. The research questions include the following: 1. What are the similarities and differences among the aims/objectives of adult education in China and in the United States? 2. How might such similarities and differences affect the practices of adult education? 3. What can adult educators in China and in the United States learn from each other in the practices of adult education?

A rationale is incorporated with a description of the needs and reasons to make such comparisons and contrasts. The method of this study is a content analysis of selected documents, speeches and literature as they relate to the philosophical foundations of adult education in China and in the United States.

Rationale. China and the United States are very different in their historical backgrounds, socioeconomic circumstances, political systems and philosophies. China is a socialist country which is committed to the service of the interests of all the people, whereas the United States is a capitalist country which advocates free enterprise and competition, such that the benefits of society are unequally distributed. China has experienced some 2,000 years of slave society and more than 2,000 years of feudal society. After the Opium War in the middle of the 19th century (1840), foreign imperialists started to invade China, with the result that China later became a semi-colonial and semi-feudal society. The Xin Hai (1911) Revolution toppled the Qing Dynasty under the leadership of Sun Yatsen, the "father of modern China", and his Nationalist Party (the Guomingdang), thus ending the feudal system in China. However, the semi-colonial and semi-feudal nature of the Chinese society was not changed. The Chinese Communist Party (CCP) was established in 1921. After 28 years of hard struggle, the Chinese people led by the CCP evicted the imperialists, outlawed feudalism and bureaucratic capitalism, and created the People's Republic of China in October, 1949. China has witnessed tremendous turmoil and great revolutionary changes in this century. The United States has had a relatively short and steady history. Since winning its independence in 1776, the United States expanded its territory greatly from 13 states to 50 states. Following the two world wars, the fortunes of the United States grew greatly. On the other hand, China suffered great economic loss. China is still a developing country which is striving to realize the "four modernizations" of industry, agriculture, national defense and science/technology, whereas the United States is a well developed country which is trying to maintain its superpower status.

---

[1] Graduate Studies in Adult Continuing Education, 101 Gabel Hall, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, IL 60115, U.S.A.

Having cited such striking political, historical and socioeconomic differences, I might be asked whether or not there is a need or reason for making this comparison and contrast of the philosophical foundations of adult education in China and the United States. People in both countries have expressed the need to learn from other countries for many decades. The interests of the Chinese people and their expressed need to do so were well stated by Chinese leader Deng Xiaoping in his speech made at the CCP XII National Congress in September, 1982. He said:

> Both in our revolution and construction, we should learn from foreign countries and draw on their experience. But mechanical copying and application of foreign experience and models will get us nowhere (Deng, 1984).

In the United States, Charters (1981) claimed that the benefits of comparative adult education include a better understanding of oneself, of one's own culture, and of others whose ideas and experience may prove useful. Therefore, it is clearly reasonable to compare and contrast the philosophical foundations of adult education in China and in the United States. It would be useful for adult educators of both nations to be aware of these similarities and differences, as well as their implications, in order that they might learn from each other in their practices.

Aims/objectives. The dialectic materialism of Marx and Mao has been the philosophical basis of adult education in China since 1949. Sun Zheng and Wu Jie's (1986) interpretation of the dialectic materialism of Marx and Mao in relation to the educational philosophy represents the dominant views among Chinese educators. According to their work, education is a part of the superstructure in a society and it reflects the characteristics of a class society. Social existence determines social ideology and the economic base determines the superstructure. When the economic base revolutionizes, the superstructure will revolutionize so that a new economic base as well as a new superstructure will replace the old one. The determination of education by the economic base can be shown in that whoever controls the means of production controls education. The nature of productive relations determines the social nature of education. The revolution of the economic base will sooner or later bring about fundamental change in the nature of education. There exist essential relationships between education and economy. It is such essential relationships that directly promote development and change in education. Education does not passively reflect economic and political demands but it does exert great influence on the economy. Education serves social production and social life through educating people. In a class society, the ruling class always tries to train people through education in order to consolidate its political power.

The aims/objectives of adult education in China have clearly embodied much Chinese interpretation of the Marxist philosophy of education. In October, 1949, when the People's Republic of China was founded, the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference formulated a "Common Program" which pointed out clearly that "the education of workers during their spare time and that of cadres shall be strengthened" (The CPPCC, p. 18). Adult education is addressed as a symbol of a great social change in China. At the First National Conference of Worker/Peasant Education in 1950, the Minister of Education, Ma Xu-lun, said in his opening remarks:

> The brave and diligent workers and peasants of China created Chinese history and civilization, but they were deprived of the rights of enjoying culture and education in the old China. Such phenomena began to change fundamentally in a nationwide scope after the founding of the People's Republic of China. The victory of the great people's revolution makes the workers and peasants gain political status as the country's foundation and they start to enjoy the political rights of formal education at different levels (Zhang, 1984, p. 575).

Adult education is conceived as an indispensable condition to develop and consolidate new China, as well as a political task for educators. At the same conference, Ma Xu-lun later said:

> To raise the cultural and political levels of the workers and peasants is an indispensable condition in development and consolidation of this people's democratic dictatorship. Meanwhile, our nation's current central task is to restore and develop rapidly the productive construction which mainly relies on the two big troops of workers and peasants on the production front. If our education can't help to raise the ideological consciousness, cultural and technological levels of the two big troops, there will not appear the new working attitudes and creative spirits needed for the productive construction. Our productive construction will be harmed and our education will be divorced from reality. Therefore, to carry out correctly the worker/peasant education is a grave political task for the people of the whole nation, especially for educators (Ibid. p. 575).

Adult education has been linked to the development of production since the early 1950s. But this philosophy was further emphasized after the cultural revolution (1966-1976). In May 1980, when the Secretariat of the Central Committee of the CCP discussed educational problems, their report pointed out:

> The educational system should consider the educational problems of workers and peasants. If workers and peasants are not educated, it is difficult to realize the modernizations of culture, industry, and agriculture. If workers and peasants are educated and their culture and science levels are raised, the productivity of labor can be improved (Ibid. p. 575).

In the United States, the philosophical basis of adult education seems to vary according to the providers of programs (Long, 1987, p.19). Apps (1973) identified five educational philosophies (a) perennialism, (b) essentialism, (c) progressivism, (d) reconstructionism, (e) existentialism. Elias and Merriam (1980) identified six philosophies of adult education in the United States: analytical, behavioristic, humanistic, progressive, liberal, and radical. The above classifications of the educational philosophies are overlapping in many ways. These educational philosophies emphasize one aspect or another in education, such as discipline, individual learner or social development. These aspects of education are not viewed as interrelated in the context of a class society. Rather they are viewed as separate in a "democratic" society where education is assumed as "equal" to everyone. Rooted in pragmatism, Dewey's progressive philosophy of education has probably been the most influential in adult education in the United States. Dewey (1916, p.70) claimed that the educational application of class distinctions in social organization means external dictation instead of growth.

A wide range of purposes, goals, and objectives in the American adult education movement reflects the diversified philosophical orientations in adult education. In Adult Education in Action (Ely, 1936), 18 prominent educators, scientists, and philosophers wrote what they thought should be the aims and objectives of adult education. These included the need: To educate the whole person; to keep our minds open; to base our judgments on facts; to meet the challenges of free choice; to keep abreast of new knowledge; to be wisely destructive; to turn to creative endeavors; to prepare for new occupations, to restore unity to life; to insure social stability; to direct social change; to better our social order; to open new frontiers; to liberalize the college curriculum; to improve teachers and teaching; to attain to true security; to enlarge our horizons; to receive information. Lindeman (1926, p. 166) claimed that "changing individuals in continuous adjustment to changing social functions — this is the bilateral though unified purpose of adult learning."

As we can see, the philosophical bases for adult education in China and United States are very different. Adult education in China is assumed to be determined by class and economic interests in the Chinese society. Adult education in China is openly stated as a symbol of great social change, as an indispensable condition to develop and consolidate the people's democratic dictatorship, as a political task for the people of the whole nation and especially for educators, as a means to achieve the government's priorities. As a result, adult education in China lays emphasis on social progress and change. Social interests come before individual interests. Adult education in the United States assumes that each person is the equal of anyone else in a "democratic" society. Consequently, adult education in the United States is often discussed from the point of view of individual growth. Personal development is the emphasis. Individual interests come before the social interests. Less dominant philosophies in adult education emphasize pure cultivation of intellect or radical social change. Organization effectiveness is also the aim of a large segment of American adult education (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p. 69).

Despite the differences in the preceding analysis, similarities in the aims/objectives are still manifested. Adult education in China and in the United States is related to individual, social and economic development no matter the dominant emphases. How might such similarities and differences affect practices of adult education in China and in the United States? The following section provides a brief comparison and contrast in the areas of definitions, content/programs/agencies, learners/learning/educators, and problems/issues.

Practices of Adult Education. At present, adult education in China refers to education for all adults who are outside the normal age-graded school systems. Other popular terms include "worker education" and "peasant education". In the Chinese adult population, workers and peasants constitute the majority of people engaged directly in industrial and agricultural production. Therefore, the CCP and government call the education of adults "worker/peasant education". Such naming clearly reflects the philosophy of class distinctions in adult education.

In the United States, Darkenwald and Merriam (1982, p. 9) define adult education as "a process whereby persons whose major social roles are characteristic of adult status undertake systematic and sustained learning activities for the purpose of bringing about changes in knowledge, attitudes, values, or skills." This definition represents the typical philosophies of adult education, which emphasize individual growth through education.

A wide variety of content, programs and agencies have been characterized in similar ways in adult education in China and in the United States. In China, formal adult education programs are fully developed and are claimed to be equal to the age-graded school programs in standards and recognition. Central and local governments play important roles. Science and technology are more popular than liberal arts. In the United States, a big part of adult education is non-formal. Voluntary organizations play important roles. Leisure education and vocational training are more characteristic of adult education than science and technology. Community colleges and universities in the United States are more flexible in taking adult students than those in China.

Adult learners' backgrounds are diversified in terms of age, occupation, schooling and motivation both in China and in the United States. Adult learners in both countries have many problems including lack of time, family/job responsibilities and high costs. A variety of learning methods are used, but lectures or classes are often preferred and used. Mutual respect between teachers and students is encouraged. Teachers see themselves as a leaders, guides, helpers and/or facilitators.

In China, very few adult learners are older than 50; this is related to capacity of provision. There are relatively more men than women. Most learners are workers and peasants. Personal goals (to get new jobs, to advance in current jobs, to get certificates or licenses, and to attain degrees) are learners' important motivations, although the social goals for realizing the "four modernizations" are the strongest motivating forces for the Chinese government. Teachers tend to prefer content or situation centered teaching.

In the United States, there is a significant number of learners beyond the age of 50; men and women are relatively equal in number; there are more white people than black; and learners are more interested in the knowledge goals (to become better informed, to satisfy curiosity) (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, pp. 121-131). The strongest predictor of participation in adult education is a person's level of education, i.e. the more highly educated persons are, the more likely they will participate in adult education. Teachers tend to prefer student-centered teaching.

Adult educators in China tend to be interested in the problems and issues of formalization of adult education in terms of setting up standards, credentialing, quality and recognition. How adult education can best promote the material and spiritual civilization in society is also a concern for Chinese adult educators (Gao, p. 130). Adult educators in the United States tend to be interested in the problems and issues of professionalization and financing. How to effectively provide equal opportunities is a concern for some American adult educators; others assume there is equal opportunity.

Conclusion/Implications. The differences in the aims/objectives of adult education in China and in the United States are overwhelming although some common similarities are identified. These differences stem from different philosophical orientations in adult education and from different social contexts. Different aims/objectives of adult education may or may not affect the practices of adult education. Aims/objectives do not necessarily warrant certain ways of practices. As shown in the preceding comparative analyses, although there exist great differences in aims/objectives of adult education in China and in the United States, many similarities are found in the practices of adult education. The differences in the practices of adult education in both countries result mostly from the different needs and conditions of the respective societies rather than from different over-arching aims/objectives. The myth of absolute causal relationships between aims/objectives and practices of adult education is unwarranted. Adult educators may believe in different philosophical orientations in adult education and have different aims/objectives; however, they may do very similar things in their actual practices of adult education. Such a conclusion suggests tremendous implications for what adult educators in China and in the United States can learn from each other. Adult educators in both countries do not have to agree completely with each other in what they believe adult education should be. They still can learn from each other in many areas of adult education. Examples include: developing ways of helping adults learn effectively, or developing programs that will reach as many adult learners as possible. Adult educators in China and in the United States may learn from each other in virtually unlimited ways in every aspect of adult education regardless of their historical, socio-economic, political and philosophical differences.

References.

Apps, J. (1973). Toward a working philosophy of adult education. Occasional Paper No. 36. New York, Syracuse: Publications in Continuing Education.

Charters, Alexander N., et al. (1981). Comparing adult education worldwide. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Darkenwald, Gordon G. & Merriam, Sharan B. (1982). Adult Education: Foundations of Practice. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers.

Deng, Xiaoping (1984). The selected works of Deng Xiaoping. Beijing: People's Publishers.

Dewey, John (1916). Democracy and education. New York: MacMillan.

Elias, J. and Merriam, S. (1980). Philosophical foundations of adult education. New York, Huntington: Robert Kreiger Publishing Co.

Ely, Mary L. (ed.), (1936). Adult education in action. New York: American Association for Adult Education.

Gao, Ben-Yi (1987). "Adult education in the course of reform". In Ruth Hayhoe (ed.) Chinese educators on Chinese education. Calgary, Alberta: *Canadian and International Education*.

Lindeman, Eduard C. (1926). Meaning of adult education. New York: New Republic, Inc.

Long, Huey (1987). New perspectives on the education of adult in the United States. London & Sydney: Croom Helm.

Sun, Zhen and Wu Jie (eds.), (1986). Theories of education. China, Jielin Province, Changchun: Educational Publishers.

The Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference (CPPCC), (1949). The important documents of the first plenary session. Peking: Foreign Language Press.

Zhang, Jian (ed.), (1984). Education almanac 1949-1981. Beijing: China Great Encyclopedia Publishers.

AUTHOR: Shirley Lake Barber, Professor, Minnesota Extension Service,
University of Minnesota, and County Extension Agent
2020 White Bear Avenue, St. Paul, Minnesota 55109 U.S.A.

TITLE: ETHICAL VALUE DILEMMAS OF PROFESSIONAL ADULT EDUCATORS IN THE COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE

ABSTRACT: This study examines 27 ethical value dilemmas utilizing a self-report questionnaire to identify (1) the perceived importance of ethical issues in selected dilemmas, and (2) the frequency with which the ethical issues have been experienced as an adult educator. The faculty of the Minnesota Extension Service (N=526) comprised the subjects for the study. Procedures for data analysis used descriptive statistics and analysis of variance (ANOVA).

INTRODUCTION: This study examines value dilemmas encountered by Cooperative Extension Service professionals and the relationship of multiple variables to the importance and frequency of 27 dilemmas with embedded ethical issues. Knowledge of which dilemmas are common and recurrent for Cooperative Extension Service professionals provides a basis for curriculum planning. This knowledge is also of value in designing in-service education for practicing professionals. Ethics courses can then be more effectively designed for preparation of professionals which stimulate recognition, discussion and resolution of ethical value dilemmas applicable to the helping professions such as adult education.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY: The study identifies the perceptions held by Minnesota Extension Service professionals regarding issues involving value dilemmas, and the perceived importance of embedded ethical issues within selected dilemmas. The proportion of Extension professionals' experience and the frequency of experience with specific ethical issues is examined using demographic and classification variables.

BACKGROUND FOR THE STUDY: Little is known about how adult educators in the Cooperative Extension Service integrate ethical reasoning in their delivery of educational programs involving agricultural and home economics subject matter.

As a means for assisting its clientele to deal with social and technological change, the Minnesota Extension Service is changing from its tradition of providing research-based information to providing educational programs dealing with issues confronting the people of the state. Issues generally reflect embedded dilemmas with various value perspectives relating to justice and fairness. Decision making about issues reflects a need for ethical reasoning by professionals who provide instruction for adult learners.

The Cooperative Extension Service is a major adult education organization in the United States. The Minnesota Extension Service provides non-credit, research-based informal education through four program areas: Agriculture, Home Economics, 4-H Youth Development, and Community and Natural Resource Development. Professionals in the Minnesota Extension Service ranked as faculty include County and Area Extension Agents, Specialists, and administrators. Through strategic planning, reported in Focus on People, (Borich, 1986), programming in these four major program areas will continue, concurrent with a shift to increased emphasis on issues. This priority calls for more emphasis on current central issues as opposed to more traditional, historic programs. Little is known regarding Extension professionals' effectiveness in moral decision-making and ethical reasoning.

In Focus on People (Borich, 1986) an issue is defined as a matter of wide public concern.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND PREVIOUS RESEARCH: Issues generally reflect embedded dilemmas with various value perspectives relating to justice and fairness. Decision-making about issues reflects moral value judgment (Rest, 1979). This suggests a need for ethical development on the part of professionals who enable adult learners. In this context, an issue is defined as a point the decision of which determines a matter. A dilemma can be defined as a situation requiring a choice between undesirable or unsatisfactory alternatives. In this study an ethical issue is defined as a dilemma with embedded value perspectives relating to justice and fairness.

There is theory to suggest that persons, including those who are adult educators, vary in their ability to perceive and make moral choices (Kohlberg, 1976; Rest, 1979).

Rest (1982) has developed a model consisting of four psychological processes which are necessary conditions for moral behavior; the model, which is based on extensive review of literatures, is an integration of theories, and reported in The Hastings Center Report (Rest, 1982). Rest's scheme, now known as The Four Component Model, takes into account how cognitive and affective behaviors, personality factors, reasoning abilities and attitudes seem to be related to one another and to moral behavior.

Component I involves the abilities to interpret the situation with the perception that something one might do or is doing can affect the welfare of someone else either directly or indirectly (by violating a general practice or commonly held social standard).

Component II involves the ability to formulate a morally ideal course of action (moral reasoning) by seeking the morally ideal course of action, with the person trying to integrate the various considerations -- person A's needs, person B's needs, personal needs, expectations founded on previous promises or roles or instituted practices, regarding how they influence the alternative courses of action available in a particular situation.

Component III involves deciding what values are most important in deciding what one actually intends to do and commiting to the moral value.

Component IV involves executing and implementing what one intends to do and involves one's ego strength or self-regulation skills. It is executing and implementing a plan of action and involves figuring out the sequence of concrete actions, working around impediments and unexpected difficulties, while keeping sight of the eventual goal. Perseverance, resoluteness, competence, and "character" are described virtues of Component IV.

This study is limited to Rest's (1982) Component I.

Rest, et al (1986) suggest studying professionals in the flow of real life events and propose one advantage is that decision making of professionals about issues that arise in their work will often involve reflective, deliberate reasoning which the person can articulate and explain.

Furthermore, Rest, et al (1986) observe that professionals may have high technical competence but be deficient in moral judgment.

Findings from curriculum projects (Sheehan, Hustad, Candee, Cook and Bargen, 1980; Bebeau, (1985) suggest that teaching of ethics is appropriate and applicable to adult education involving an issues orientation to dilemmas. Studies which have been conducted are generally in the health sciences of dentistry, nursing and medical clinical performance. Of work reported, none is known to be specific to professionals in a field of adult education. However, adults have been involved in the work reported by Bebeau (1985), Follick (1984), and others.

Dison (1985), utilized 25 dilemmas based on Rest's Component I in a national study of ethical dilemmas of nursing students. She concluded that nursing education intervention programs that (might) begin with discussions of theories and dilemmas which students might encounter and actually meet would be appropriate. Dison's (1985) conclusions are supported by Rest, et al (1985) that discussing dilemmas before they occur would make it easier to recognize similar dilemmas. Dison's 1985 study in nursing is among the few published which identify such dilemmas in the work flow, and classify them according to specific ethical emphasis such as confidentiality, truthtelling, informed consent, and protection from harm.

METHODOLOGY: The faculty of the Minnesota Extension Service (N=528) comprised the subjects for the study. This included people working in administration and the program areas of agriculture, home economics, 4-H youth development, and community and natural resources/Sea Grant program.

A self-administered questionnaire was developed by the investigator. Two types of information were desired from the subjects: (1) demographic information, and (2) perceptions of importance and frequency of experience of each of the 27 dilemmas.

Development of the questionnaire was a two-step process. First, Dison's (1985) classification of 25 ethical issues applicable to the helping professions was utilized to develop examples of dilemmas appropriate to the work setting of the subjects. For each of the 25 issues these components were provided: (a) a brief example of a situation which illustrates a work setting dilemma with an embedded ethical issue, (b) a statement of the ethical issue and dilemma, (c) a rating scale to report the importance of the ethical issue, and (d) a rating scale to report the frequency of respondent experience with the ethical issue.

Second, the investigator's reflection of experience in the Minnesota Extension Service resulted in identifying two additional issues for study; these two issues were developed in the same format.
The instrument was designed to collect information about demographic data and perceptions about ethical issues and dilemmas. The first part of the questionnaire sought information about variables that would describe the population. These variables were also used to study their relationships with the importance rating and the frequency of experiencing the

dilemmas. The questions in this section asked faculty to identify position, program area, years of experience, percentage of time in specific functions, current location, age category, gender, education level completed, whether major(s) in Education had been completed, location of growing up background, previous instruction in ethics, living arrangements by self or with other people, religious preference, and level of religious activity.

For each of the 27 issues studied, a brief example of a work setting dilemma was prepared. Then a statment designed to capture the essence of an issue embedded in the story was developed and placed immediately after the story. This is an example:

> Situation 1. The program participant is an unmarried woman expecting her second child. After confiding that the father of her children is living with her, she pleads, "Please don't tell anyone. If the agency finds out, they will cut off my aid." Both the program participant and her housemate are unemployed. The Extension worker debates whether to honor the program participant's confidence or to report this information to the agency.
>
> **The issue is:** Whether to protect the person's confidentiality or report the information to authorities.

Respondents were asked to disregard the details of the dilemma and to respond to the issue identified immediately after each dilemma. This was done to standardize the interpretation of the dilemmas in order to report with some confidence that faculty were responding to the same issues.

Following questionnaire development, a pilot test was conducted with 16 persons. This group included persons representative of the faculty categories of the organization and knowledgeable about the organization. Following mailing the proposed questionnaire with a cover letter, a telephone interview was conducted by the investigator following receipt of the completed questionnaire. Pilot study participants were asked for suggestions, after which the instrument was revised.

A mailing protocol was developed in accordance to standard mailing procedures of the organization to its various faculty groups. The completed, revised questionnaire was prepared in 8 1/2 x 11 inch white booklet format with yellow cover. Accompanying the questionnaire was a cover letter from a state administrator encouraging faculty participation, and instructions for the mailing protocol. The mailing to faculty was timed to arrive to faculty mid-May, 1987. Reminder letters were sent to faculty three weeks later who had not returned the mail protocol indicator. Duplicate questionnaires were sent when requested.

Data were coded according to a pre-determined numerical system for entry into a computer.

Data analysis included statistical procedures providing descriptive statistics of the subjects including rankings of dilemmas, and F values from analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests.

FINDINGS: The total response rate for this study is 86 percent. Findings reported are univariate tests.

This study examined 11 demographic variables for 27 ethical issues utilizing the univariate F statistic for statistical significance (p <.05). Findings of the 297 tests are each reported for importance and frequency.

Statistical significance was found for 66 percent of the tests for importance and 34 percent of the tests for frequency. Similar tests for statistical significance were also conducted for variables related to family relationships for the respondent's current living situation (self/with other adults/pre-school children/2 or more children/senior citizen).

Demographic variables were categorically grouped:

Variable Category	Importance	Frequency
Agency (position/program area/location)	88%	47%
Early influences (background/religious life)	77%	22%
Education (level completed/education major)	72%	37%
Physical/genetic (age/gender)	31%	26%
Ethics instruction completed	26%	41%
Living situation (alone/with others specified)	4%	8%

The means of rank order of importance ratings on a 4-point scale (0-3) ranged from 2.08 for a high to 1.06 for a low. The three highest and lowest ranking means for importance include:

Rank	Issue		Mean
1	26	To do nothing or take responsibility for actions	2.08
2	14	To allow or prevent suicide	1.97
3	5	To reinforce truth or compromise it	1.96
- - -			
25	1	To protect confidentiality or report information	1.15
26	15	To do experimental study or recommend completion	1.10
27	19	To honor collective bargaining or to disregard it	1.06

The means of rank order of frequency ratings on a 6-point scale (0-5) ranged from 2.38 for a high to .11 for a low. The three highest and lowest ranking means for frequency include:

Rank	Issue		Mean
1	3	To do common practice or allocate equally	2.38
2	5	To reinforce truth or compromise it	2.07
3	26	To do nothing or take responsibility for actions	1.89
- - -			
25	15	To do experimental study or recommend completion	.25
26	19	To honor collective bargaining or to disregard it	.17
27	7	To report behavioral control or ignore it	.11

The findings for importance suggest variables related to agency (faculty position/program area/location in state); early influences in life (growing up background/religious preference/level of religious activity); and education (level completed/ with less significance for completion of an education major) are statistically significant variables. Least significant importance variables are those related to age and family relationships in personal living situation; for example, living with another adult, pre-school child(ren), 2 or more children, or senior citizen in the home.

The findings for frequency suggest overall less statistical significance. This study reports agency variables (faculty position/program area/location in state) contribute the greatest statistical significance. Of least significance were variables related to the respondent's living situation.

REFERENCES

Bebeau, Muriel, J. (1985). Teaching Ethics in Dentistry. Journal of Dental Education, Vol. 49, 4, 225-235.

Borich, Patrick J. (1986). Focus on People, A statement of direction and priorities for Minnesota Extension Service, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, MN., Extension publication, 1-14.

Dison, Norma J. (1985). Dilemmas of Baccaleureate Nursing Students, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Minnesota.

Follick, T. (1984). A Survey of Ethical Dilemmas Encountered by Psychologists Treating Outpatients. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Minnesota.

Kohlberg, Lawrence. (1976). The Cognitive-Developmental Approach to Moral Education. In D. Purpel and K. Ryan (Eds.), Moral Education ...It Comes With the Territory. 176-196.

Kohlberg, Lawrence. (1976). Moral Stages and Moralization: The Cognitive-Developmental Approach. In T. Likona (Ed.), Moral Development and Behavior. 31-53.

Rest, James R. (1979). Development in Judging Moral Issues. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press.

Rest, James R. (1982). A Psychologist Looks at the Teaching of Ethics. The Hastings Center Report. 12 (1) 29-36.

Rest, J. R., et al. (1986). Moral Development: A New Phase of Research. New York: Praeger Publishers.

Sheehan, T. J., Husted, S., Cook, C., and Bargen, M. (1980, December). Moral Judgment as a Predictor of Clinical Performance. In Evaluation and the Health Professions, Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications.

Generating Research Ideas in Adult Education: A Study of the Most Prolific North American Adult Education Researchers

H.K. Baskett and D.R. Garrison
Faculty of Continuing Education, The University of Calgary

ABSTRACT

This paper gives an account of how research ideas are generated, based upon extensive interviews with 17 of North America's most prolific adult education researchers, Sources, the place of scholarly roles, the development of research "lines", locus of control, fads and fashions in research, and practice as a source of ideas are discussed.

BACKGROUND

How do adult education researchers get their research ideas? Do they simply conjure them up? Are there predictable sources? Do patterns or processes exist, or is it entirely idiosyncratic? These questions, and many others, arose as a result of the authors' study of 150 members of the Canadian Association for the Study of Adult Education (CASAE). This study revealed a lack of confidence and understanding of research strategies as major deterrents to undertaking research.

METHODOLOGY

In order to better understand how successful researchers do research, the authors interviewed 17 of the most prolific adult education researchers in North America, as determined by the number of publications in major adult education journals within a recent five year period. Each had published an average of 38 articles, 9 book chapters, 4 books and 6 monographs. A pre-tested protocol was used to collect data by telephone interviews, each lasting from 75 to 120 minutes. Analysis of the typed transcripts involved using Glaser & Strauss' (1967) method of constant comparison and emergent categories and properties. An overview of the results of the study was reported by the authors to AERC (Garrison & Baskett 1987).

FINDINGS

Sources For Generating Research Ideas

Nineteen separate sources were mentioned as contributing to idea generation. Although these ranged from television viewing to facilitating social change, the most frequently cited sources were: the literature (13); the field (7); teaching (6); students (5); and colleagues(5). While these categories have some empirical reality and are useful in analyzing sources of ideas, it must be emphasized that these emergent categories are not mutually exclusive. For example, teaching and discussions with students were identified as separate sources by the subjects, but clearly, teaching itself is an interaction with students.

The literature. A close, even intimate understanding of the literature in their areas of research seemed to be prerequisite to generating research questions and ideas. Even though 13 of the 17 specifically mentioned the literature, it was evident in the interviews that all of the subjects were well acquainted with the literature in their field.

One function of the literature, was to provide general awareness of issues: "Literature functions more as a general backdrop rather than something specific." In addition literature served to trigger specific research ideas: "Sometimes they come as a reaction to reading someone else's work...you see a fatal conceptual flaw....".

An "invisible college" of researchers interacted through the medium of print-articles, books and papers in proceedings. Even though these authors often knew each other, one had a sense that the interaction was with their disembodied writing or "work":"...others' work in the area of adult education...". "Sometimes they (ideas) come as a reaction to reading someone else's work....".

The field. Although "the field" was often mentioned, it was apparent that our researchers held varying definitions of the word. Some used the term to refer to a body of knowledge; "the reading of the current journals in the field....": others used the term as in 'field of practice';"...actual contact with the field.".

Teaching. Teaching was an important activity from which ideas for research emerged, as these excerpts suggest: "They just come out of the momentum that develops in conversations in classes"; "...as you teach about them... ideas come to mind....".

Students. Students were also said to be a critical source of research ideas: "...I get ideas...from students wanting to ask...questions"; "...obviously the students".

Colleagues. Colleagues were specifically cited by several researchers:"...ideas are generated by working with (name of a colleague)"; "The informal conversations...with colleagues at national conferences....".

The notion that research ideas have an identifiable genesis, as reflected in the concept of "source" fails to portray the almost mysterious manner in which ideas emerge, become transformed, and then eventually become part of researchers' projects. Although the literature, teaching, students, colleagues, and practitioners, are all part of the mix, they often play special parts, and sometimes at different stages of the "journey" of a workable research idea.

While our subjects stated that teaching and students were sources of research ideas, it appears that these "sources" act as catalysts through which research topics are unearthed. In the process of explaining to students, or through writing or reading, gaps, inconsistencies, or other phenomenom are discovered. These are earmarked by researchers as needing attention, and become part of a resevoir of research agendas to which they may eventually attend.

But in addition to being a catalyst, graduate students and colleagues help in shaping, testing, enlarging and extending research ideas: "I get an idea that is creative (and I) interact and bounce ideas off other people until it comes to something that is durable.".

The Role of Role

As Hunter (1985) has suggested "... prolific scholars are most likely to be employed in professional roles in which they are expected to engage in scholarly inquiry and publication activities." (p44). All of our prolific researchers held university faculty posts. As our subjects carried through their scholarly roles of explaining, they were confronted with gaps, inconsistencies, flaws, confusions, or needs for clarification, further exploration and extension. Both their roles, and their innate curiosity seemed to drive them to explain: " If I can't figure out what people are saying in the field, or I can't figure out a phenomenon, then that to me is a pretty good sign that there is some need for research"; "I can easily trace the genesis of my research...back to an experience that I had or an uncomfortable feeling that I had as a practitioner".

In summary, it appears that there isn't simply one "source" of research ideas.The combination of sources, together with the desire to explain and a milieu in which explanation is an acceptable role, leads to research questions and ideas. As one researcher put it, "...it's probably an interaction of teaching, advising, colleagues, reading.".

The Development of Research Lines

Most of the researchers had more than one "line" of research. For many, their "lines" were not disparate, but were perceived by the interviewees to have a unifying theme or basis. Several referred to subfields commonly recognized in adult education, such as self-concept and personal development, program planning, adult learning or evaluation as the unifying theme. Others identified general methods or approaches, such as interest in history or a "naturalistic approach" as being a main thread along which specific studies were pursued.

These unifying themes were the perception of the subjects, although as one put it, "... I can discern something which informs all of the writing, and an "external observer may not.".

It was obvious from our interviews that one does not simply go out and "get" research ideas. Each "line" had a history, an evolution, some dating back to graduate research or practice experience. Several subjects were able to track the path of those research lines: "...I think I can... explain... what the origin of that project was and that it ties into a larger interest that I have in planning"; "As I look back, I can discern a central theme in my writing. But it has taken lots of different forms....".

Becoming too diverse in one's lines of research was regarded as a problem. Two interviewees advised young researchers that if they were going to contribute to tested knowledge in the field, they "...should pick their area of specialization and stick with this"; or,"develop a research problem and do not specialize in more than two areas.".

Research "lines" ebbed and flowed. Old lines were completed, sometimes simply because the area became less fertile, sometimes by conscious change, and sometimes as a result of new, more pressing interests: "...they evolve and then they sort of trail off and they pick up again"; "...I have attempted to narrow and focus";"I...haven't done anything in that area in probably 10 years - tended to fade out. I am basically more active in...(another area) now.".

Some of their mentors and professors had a powerful effect on the choice of research topics, especially early in our researchers' careers. This influence came in the form of being encouraged to pursue a research direction by advisors or teachers, in which the subjects have now established themselves. The following quote shows how a significant change in direction can occur: "...when I walked into my graduate program, I thought I was going to do a historical study....then I took a course in adult development by _______, who is well known in the area, and just got totally captivated by the whole area.". Adult development continues to be a "line" of research for this prolific researcher.

Once a "line" was established, research seemed to generate itself. In some areas our researchers had become so well known, that it become a self-fulfilling prophecy:"...we just sort of evolved it in the first book and then when you do...write something, everybody assumes that it's your area. You are called to do more things in that area because they assume (it) is your area - and then there's nobody else doing it - you become the expert....";"...it just kind of keeps generating itself once you get really turned on to an area and you never would have encountered a thing of sitting down and saying I better think of something to do research on...".

Success begets success. Previous research and understanding is a building block for further research and more successful research topics. One researcher referred to this process as branching from the main trunk or line, and that once one has a line, related ideas just occur naturally: "There are thousands of them and they...come up in the most spontaneous...serendipitous ways.".

Locus of Control

Some lines of research were deliberate, purposeful, planned, while others occurred more spontaneously. Although we had no easy way of checking, we suspected that this was at least in part a function of personality and the setting.

One researcher, who worked in a setting where research direction was more person-initiated than institution-initiated, had this to say: "...I tend to be a bit stimulus-bound. I dart from project to project....".

On the other hand, another researcher, from a unit known for emphasizing a particular line of research explained that: "...my colleagues and students are ...trying to use (the) paradigm that we're working on...as a set of concepts for operationalizing our research....".

One can conceptualize a continuum of research generation, based on locus of control, from researcher-generated, whereby all of the control to select the research topic or "line" rests entirely with the researcher, to the other pole, whereby the research direction is dictated by the environment, usually, but not exclusively, the unit to which the researcher is attached. Even when the choice rests with the individual researcher, however, there are certain internal constraints. As mentioned previously, one's approach (historical, philosophical, "empirical",), one's ideology or paradigm, one's method of thinking (analogically), or one's past (mentors, type of graduate training, life experience) will also influence what research ideas or questions will be selected as fruitful, or interesting to each researcher.

Fads and Fashions

Are adult education researchers opportunists? Do they follow the literature and tap into current themes, topics or trends in adult education? None of our prolific researchers would admit to being opportunistic. Indeed, some emphatically rejected responding to fads. Several others were very clear that while they were constantly in touch with the literature, and incorporated it into their research in an on-going way, they did not purposefully select topics about which to research and/or write simply because they were the hottest topics, or to enhance their chances of getting the material published. Still others pointed out that when their lines of work and the literature came together, they would sometimes respond.

Practice as A Source of Research Ideas

The relationship between researcher and practitioner is of on-going interest in the adult education field. We were particularly interested in this area because it seemed to us that as an applied field, the practice arena would be a most significant source of research ideas, and we wondered how important it was to our exemplary researchers.

When asked how necessary it was to be a practitioner in order to do research in adult education, 5 of the 17 felt strongly that it was necessary, 4 felt strongly that it wasn't and 8 gave mixed or modified responses.

Many pointed out that the critical variable was the type of research one was doing:"...there is a distinctive advantage to having had the experience as a practitioner, if you are doing research about practice";"if you want to just test a few hypotheses...then I don't think you need to be a practitioner.".

A number of researchers distinguished between being a practitioner and having contact with, or knowing about, practice: "I don't think it is necessary to have been a practitioner. I think it is very necessary that one has had a lot of contact with practitioners.".

Several felt that practice was not essential, and may even get in the way of good research:"...sometimes it's a big encumberance...it is a big distraction.".

We also asked our sample if they thought there was a role which practitioners could play in adult education research. Fifteen of the 17 answered that there was a role, and two were unsure. Most felt that ideally, researchers and practitioners should work together. As a result, the quality of research generated by the practitioners could be improved as could the relevance of the research to the practice field.

DISCUSSION

What tentative understandings may be drawn from this exploratory research? First, it is apparent that sources of research ideas are multiple and interacting. One's teaching, reading, and writing, in addition to, or in conjunction with, and discussion with peers, students and practitioners, are all important to generating research ideas.

Secondly, some preconditions seem important to being a prolific researcher. Extensive knowledge of the literature and the issues seem to be a prerequisite. An innate curiosity and willingness to work hard is a definite asset. Occupying a role as a teacher, researcher, and scholar seems to be important to ensuring success as a prolific researcher, self-evident though that may seem. It may be that having depth in a few "lines" helps with ones productivity as a researcher. Although we did not pursue this in depth, it would appear that having the right mentors, and coming from the right universities will have a positive bearing on one's success in developing research lines in which one becomes an expert.

Third, the development of ideas and research "lines" takes a long time. There appears to be no instant formula. Seizing the right fad and riding the wave did not seem to be the way our sample became successful. However, success does beget success. Once one establishes a reputation as an expert, one receives external reinforcement to remain expert, is encouraged and invited to write and present more, and, as a result, research does just keep generating itself.

Fourth, both psychological factors and environmental factors seem to influence the kind of research in which one engages. In some situations, specific lines of enquiry are, at least to some degree, dictated by the particular framework of the host unit, its general ideology, or/and the nature of the funding. We would speculate that in such instances, the recruiting and socialization processes lead to a general homogeneity of faculty research directions. On the other hand, many units in which our subjects worked were highly eclectic and heteogeneous. One sensed that these individuals selected their lines of research because of individual interests.

Finally, it would appear that there are diverse opinions about the role of practice experience in doing good research. One thing seems quite clear, and that is that a crucial variable in this on-going debate is the nature of the research which one undertakes. It is quite unmistakable, however, that our researchers believed that practioners should do research, and they should help practitioners in such activities.

This has been an exploratory study. In condensing reams of transcript pages to a few, much of the flavour and richness, as conveyed by the words of our researchers themselves, is lost. Aspiring researchers may be encouraged to know, however, that most of our subjects had several rejections of submitted manuscripts, particularly early in their career. Nonetheless, they learned from their experience, persisted in submitting their work for publication, and now rarely receive rejections.

References

Garrison, D.R. & Baskett, H.K. (1987). "Research and publishing in adult education: A study of the approaches and strategies of the field's most successful researchers".AERC Proceedings, Laramie, Wyoming; pp90-95.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967) The discovery of grounded theory. Chicago: Aldine

Hunter, D.E.(1985) "What Prolific higher education scholars have to say about their careers." ERIC Document #259 632.

A Typology of the ABE Learner as Derived Through Quantitative Induction.

Hal Beder*

Abstract: This presentation reports research designed to derive a typology of the Adult Basic Education learner reflective of learners' behavior toward ABE. To achieve this objective, a qualitative analysis was conducted on quantitative data.

Introduction

Although in reality the Adult Basic Education (ABE) population is comprised of many subgroups, there has been a tendency in both practice and theory to conceive them as being one homogeneous group. Such a conception precludes practitioners from "tailoring" instruction to group needs and from formulating recruitment strategies targeted to sub-group preferences. From a theoretical perspective, conceiving the ABE population as being homogeneous inhibits a refined understanding of participation and learning differences.

There are nearly an infinite number of ways that any group can be sub-divided, most being trivial. Because we wanted to contribute to the refinement of instruction, promotion, and theory, in the present research our goal was to segment the population in a way which reflected the behavior of students in respect to ABE.

The study employed three frames of data: motivations for attending, cognitive ability, and sociodemographic indicators of group behavior. Motivations for attending were measured by 62 items derived from interviews with ABE students. Cognitive Ability was measured by the Woodcock-Johnson Psycho-Educational Battery, and the sociodemographic items were patterned after the United States Census and large scale participation studies such as that of The National Center for Educational Statistics and Johnstone and Rivera (1965).

The study population was comprised of all Iowa (a Midwestern State in the United States) ABE students with less than eleven years of formal schooling. From this population, a random sample of 350 was drawn (probability-proportionate-to-size) and interviewed at length in fixed format. The effective _N_ was 323 for a response rate of .92. The Woodcock-Johnson was administered to a random sub-sample of 175 with an effective _N_ of 153 and a response rate of .87.

The analytical task was to derive a typology of the ABE student from this wealth of data, an inductive task which called for data reduction and relevant categorization. To this end, the following procedures were conducted:

---

* Rutgers University

1.To derive the underlying structure of ABE students' motivations to attend, the 62 motivation items were subjected to factor analysis (Varimax/orthogonal rotation with .45 being the criterion for item retention). Based on a scree test and factor interpretability, a ten factor solution was selected. After each cluster of factored items was examined, the following labels were applied: Self Improvement, Family Responsibilities, Diversion, Literacy Development, Community/Church Involvement, Job Advancement, Launching, Economic Need, Educational Advancement, and Urging of Others. Nine of these factors, which represent the basic reasons why the study population attends ABE, correspond to the findings of previous research, such as that of Boshier (1971) and Darkenwald and Valentine (1986). Launching is a newly identified factor, which suggests that the transition from youth to adulthood stimulates motivation to attend ABE.

2. Factor analysis reduces large sets of variables to meaningful clusters. However, to develop a typology of ABE learners, we wished to identify clusters of individuals rather than variables -- individuals who could then be described according to the other two frames of data. To accomplish this, the factor scores were subjected to cluster analysis (SAS FASTCLUS). Cluster analysis groups individuals into mutually exclusive clusters for which the members of each cluster are similar to one another and dissimilar to the members of any other cluster. Furthermore, the clustering of motivations recognizes that individuals may be motivated by several factors to greater or lesser degrees. Cluster analysis derives the number of clusters it is directed to by the researcher. We analyzed cluster solutions for between two and twelve and selected a six cluster solution based on interpretability, plots of r-square and the cubic clustering criterion.

Once clusters had been derived, each was described according to cognitive ability/achievement and sociodemographic variables. Based on these descriptions, each cluster was assigned a defining label. The results are as follows: (Note: space limitations preclude a full description of each cluster. Expanded descriptions will be available at the presentation.)

Mainstream Women (33% of population): These individuals are most motivated by family responsibility. They are predominately women and they spend the most time of any group in community activity per month and also attend church the most. They have the highest family incomes, and have the highest incidence of marriage. There is a lower than average amount of separation and divorce among this group and this group has the highest percent with children in the home. This group has the highest scores on cognitive ability/achievement measures.

The Urged (12% of population): This group is most motivated by the urging of others and is motivated to some extent by diversion. They are the oldest group and about average in respect to gender proportions. A larger than average percent are employed, although their family incomes are lower than average. They are predominately from urban areas and small towns.

Young Adults (8% of population): This group is strongly motivated by launching and less motivated by family responsibility, self-improvement, diversion and literacy development. They are by far the youngest (mean age=20 yrs). More have been required to attend than any other group and their involvement in community activity is low; they attend church the least. This group has the highest percent of unemployed-looking for work, and most have never been married.

The Climbers (7% of population): These individuals are least motivated by community/church involvement, economic need, and the urging of others. They are most motivated by educational advancement, launching, job advancement, family responsibilities, and literacy development. The number of motivations scored highly, and the nature of those motivations, suggests a group which is interested in moving up the socioeconomic ladder. This a an older group and is the only group with a significant number of blacks. They have the lowest grade completion and the second highest proportion of members who were required to attend. The hours they spend in community activity per month is the second highest, while the number of times they attend church per month is the second lowest. This group has the second highest percentage of employed individuals and the largest percentage of skilled workers. They have by far the highest incidence of separation and divorce and they are disproportionately from large towns and urban areas.

The Least Affluent/Least Employed (30% of population): Although the motivations of this group are relatively homogeneous, they are most motivated by literacy development. This group is about average in age and has the second highest proportion of males. This is the most unemployed group and has the least members in skilled occupations. Family incomes among this group are the lowest, and the proportion of those receiving public assistance is the second highest. There is a relatively low incidence of marriage among this group.

Low Ability Strivers (10% of population): Members of this group are most motivated by job advancement and by far the least motivated by educational advancement. They are about average in respect to age and are the most male in respect to gender composition. This group has the highest last grade attended and by far the highest incidence of handicap. They spend the least hours per month in community activity. They are the most employed, but have the greatest percent of unskilled occupations. Their family incomes are only slightly lower than average and this group has the lowest incidence of public assistance. Despite the fact that they are of average age, a disproportionate number have never been married and they exhibit the lowest percentage of having children in the home.

Cognitive ability/achievement data show that this group is considerably below the population average and may boarder on retardation.

Discussion

This research raises several issues for theory and practice. From a theoretical perspective, it is important to note that the methodology employed uses quantitative procedures to produce what is essentially a qualitative analysis. In this, a wealth of data (well over 150 variables) were reduced through quantitative clustering techniques to a manageable number of "groupings." Each grouping was then analyzed inductively to derive the "meaning" generic to the grouping. As in any qualitative analysis, the skill of the researchers in deriving meanings which are sensitizing and which fit the data is of paramount importance. Yet in the present analysis, the fact that the data "beneath" the imputed meanings were organized according to mathematical associations may represent an advantage over typologies which are bases on a priori or purely theoretical assumptions. At issue also is the external validity of the research. The clustering techniques used here are generally considered to be population specific. Hence, the results can not be generalized beyond the state of Iowa. While we would expect that the groups identified here would exist in other locals, they would be expected to exist in different concentrations, and in other environments, such as urban environments, new groupings would emerge as being more salient.

In regards to practice, such a typology permits a differential approach to recruitment and instruction which recognizes that different segments of the population are likely to react positively to different promotional messages and different modes of teaching and learning (Beder 1980, 1986; Goodnow, 1982). In the present analysis, motivations to attend form the core of the typology and variables generally associated with participation behavior and ability round out the description. Hence, the typology reflects behavior towards ABE in a way which is more useful than typologies which are based on a priori or political categorizations.

This analysis may also have implications for policy, in that given limited resources, one critical aspect of policy formation is decisions regarding which groups should receive priority in the delivery of service. It has been found here, for example, that mainstream women constitute the largest, most affluent, and probably the most able group in Iowa. This may be because this group is more easily attracted by literacy programs or it may be that there are simply more of them within the population. Yet we have also identified smaller groups of young adults and low ability strivers. Could these groups benefit more form literacy instruction than mainstream women, and if so, what steps should be taken to induce greater participation among them?

References

Beder, H. (1986). The basic principles and concepts of marketing. in Hal Beder (Ed.), Marketing Continuing Education Programs. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Beder, H. (1980). Reaching the hard to reach through effective marketing. in Gordon Darkenwald (ed.) Reaching the Hard to Reach Through Continuing Education. San Francisco: Jossey Bass

Boshier, R. (1971). Motivational orientations of adult participants: A factor analytic exploration of Houle's typology. Adult Education (U.S.A.) 21 (2), 3-26.

Darkenwald, G. & Valentine, T. (1986). The benefits of GED graduation and a typology of graduates. Adult Education Quarterly. 37 (1), 23-37.

Goodnow, B. (1982). Increasing enrollment through benefit segmentation. Adult Education. 32 (2) 89-103

Johnstone, J & Rivera, R. (1965). Volunteers for Learning: A Study of the Educational Pursuits of Adults. Hawthorne NY: Aldine

This research was conducted under a grant from the Iowa State Education Department, John Hartwig project officer. The grant was administered by Western Iowa Tech Community College under the direction of Jane Sellen. Hal Beder and Thomas Valentine served as principle investigators.

The Reality of Fiction: An Exploration of Adult Development through French Literature

Nancy O. Berger, Virginia Commonwealth University

Abstract: Stages of adult development were analyzed through the use of nineteenth and twentieth century French novels. The study supports the use of fiction as a valid source of data for the analysis of adult development. It also demonstrates that universal human characteristics can emerge from studies of literature despite cultural, societal and historical differences.

Introduction

As a result of the work of a number of theorists in the field of adult development, adults are no longer viewed as static, unchanging beings; but rather as growing, learning, developing individuals throughout life. While various stages of adult development have been proposed and analyzed by prominent theorists such as Erikson (1963), Havighurst (1972), Levinson (1978), and others, the exact nature of these stages remains uncertain.

A clear understanding of the developmental tasks which characterize adults at specific stages of development is crucial to effective adult education. Only through a fuller appreciation of the needs and concerns of adults can adult educators, counselors and other professionals working with adults be certain that their activities are structured to enhance adult life. As McKenzie (1975, p. 213) has pointed out, "If the effective salesman must 'know his territory', the effective adult educator must know his clients, at least to the extent of being familiar with generalizations about human development."

Research Focus

This study was designed to explore the interests, needs and concerns of adults during each phase of adult development as reflected in French fiction. The purpose of the study was to discover characteristics of these phases which could then be compared to the phases described by Erikson (1963). A second purpose was to explore the possibility of using literature from historic time periods and a foreign country as a data source for a study of this type.

Methodology

Based on the grounded theory research approach as described by Glaser and Strauss (1967), and applied by Merriam (1980), and others, this study employs an inductive, theory-building methodology to construct patterns of adult behavior which retain the richness of human experience. This is accomplished by looking through the eyes of a selected group of uniquely qualified observers of human behavior--authors of classic works of French fiction of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

Literature as a Research Base

Literature was chosen as a research base because of its unique vision of both individual personalities and the whole of mankind. According to Friedman (1975), art is not inferior to science, but is a different "form of knowing." As he points out, "Truth may be stranger than fiction, as the old saw has it, but fiction may be truer than truth." (p. 200)

Each of the selected works has universal appeal, despite historical, cultural, and social characteristics unique to its own period and environment due, at least in part, to the author's superior ability to present the deeper realities of life which touch us all. As Mendilow (1967, p. 257) explains:

> For the great writer always writes more truly than he knows, and under the surface of his subjects and through the restrictions of his medium and treatment glows a universal humanity in the light of which contemporary distortions of perspective vanish or become of no significance. The fashions diminish in importance, the permanent element remains.

Many other authors and literary critics have emphasized the value of literature because of its ability to depict daily existence, and yet transcend it, illuminating what is enduring, essential, and universal in even the most banal of human activities. Merriam (1980), Quigley (1986), and Munro (1987), have demonstrated the value of literature to educational research. The use of literature as a data source provides a fresh, unique perspective to the study of human life that we cannot afford to ignore.

Although some researchers have employed English and American literature as a data source, Merriam (1980) and others have suggested that a view of other cultures and time periods could provide additional insight. Despite social and historical differences, the main phases of adult development should be evident in other cultures. French literature was chosen because of its characteristic concern for the psychological development and motivations of its characters.

Selection of Novels

Fifteen French novels were chosen as the research source for this study. A novel was selected for study only if it met all of the following requirements: 1) that it be a classic work of accepted literary merit; 2) that its subject matter and characters be relevant to the research; 3) that the characters studied within the novel show sufficient character development to draw valid conclusions; and 4) that it be written in a clear, realistic style, not overly symbolic or difficult to interpret. These criteria are similar to those used by Merriam (1980) and McKenzie (1976). The novels were selected from required reading lists of graduate courses in nineteenth and twentieth century French novels, both in French and American universities. In addition, the list of novels was reviewed and amended by the chairman of the French Department at the University of Virginia, an expert in French novels of this period.

Data Analysis

Each novel was carefully analyzed for indications of developmental tasks, needs, concerns, and crises experienced by the main characters at four general stages of development: late adolescence, young adulthood, middle age, and old age. Exact ages at which characters experienced these phases were not considered significant to the study for several reasons: the "normal" ages for developmental tasks to be completed have varied at different historic periods; economic status can affect the ages at which one completes certain tasks; the roles of men and women have changed dramatically over the centuries, as have the tasks they are expected to accomplish and the normal ages for doing so; and social and political events, such as wars, religious upheavals, and changing moral standards have forced changes in development at certain time periods, particularly in France. The developmental tasks associated with each life phase were then sorted and analyzed.

Results

Despite historical and cultural differences, the developmental tasks discovered closely resembled those described by Erikson (1963). During late adolescence and young adulthood, characters clearly were preoccupied with the formation of an identity and the establishment of intimacy. Middle aged characters were very much involved in having and raising children, dealing with their own parents, earning a living, and working with and through the community, all parts of the generativity phase. Older individuals reflected the need to review and integrate the experiences of their lives, a manifestation of the need for integrity.

More specific observations about each phase have also emerged. There appears to be a close interrelationship, for example, between an individual's search for identity and the need for intimacy. Erikson has pointed out that "...it is only after a reasonable sense of identity has been established that real intimacy with the other sex (or, for that matter, with any other person or even with oneself) is possible." (1980, p. 101). However, during the process of building and clarifying their identities, many of the characters in late adolescence and early adulthood seem to search for their own identities through intimacy with members of the opposite sex. This observation supports Erikson's statement that before the stage of true intimacy, much of an individual's sex life is "of the identity-searching kind."

(1963, p.264)

In Adolphe (Constant, 1937), the main character struggles with the building of an identity, displaying a restlessness that typifies this stage of transition from adolescence to young adulthood: "Distracted, inattentive, bored, I wasn't at all aware of the impression I made, and I divided my time between studies that I frequently interrupted, plans that I didn't carry out, pleasures which scarcely interested me..." (p. 20) But he also senses a need for intimacy: "I had not yet had any liaison with a woman to flatter my self-esteem;...Tormented by a vague emotion, 'I want to be loved,' I said to myself..." (p. 21)

Julien Sorel, in Le rouge et le noir by Stendhal (1830/1969), at a stage similar to that of Adolphe, expresses his sense of beginning to live his own life: ..."I am free! His soul exalted in this grand phrase." He dreams of the future: "It would be, first of all, a woman, far more beautiful and of a more exalted genius than any he had ever been able to see in the provinces. He adored her; he was beloved in return." (p. 57) Once again, the formation of a solid identity, from the character's viewpoint, seems to include an intimate relationship with a member of the opposite sex. The author notes, however, that Julien's love for Mme. de Renal, his first love relationship, seems "to depend altogether on novelty and the flattery of self-esteem." At this stage, his love is "still a form of ambition...his joy in possessing...such a noble and beautiful woman." (p. 72)

As might be expected, these attempts at intimacy seldom result in lasting relationships. They do seem to be a common part of the identity phase, however, and may be instrumental in this development.

Although particularly evident in the lives of young adults, the needs for identity and intimacy recur, in different contexts, throughout the life cycle as depicted in the literature selections. This supports Erikson's theory that developmental conflicts are reresolved at various stages: "...identity formation neither begins nor ends with adolescence; it is a lifelong development largely unconscious to the individual and to his society." (1980, p. 122) An interrelationship between identity and intimacy continues to surface at later phases as well.

Michel Butor's La Modification (1957) provides excellent insight into the tasks involved in middle age. Once again, the themes of intimacy and identity are interwoven. The main character, a forty-five year old typewriter salesman, considers leaving his wife and children for a younger woman, Cécile. He appears to love her, but also seems to be seeking a more exciting, idealized identity through her: "...you are going to be reunited with your freedom which is named Cécile...this superb love, proof of your independence, proof that you have succeeded, in two ways, since on the one hand you have just about enough money and on the other hand you have sufficiently conserved your youthful spirit to be able to use it now for the purposes of a marvelous life of adventure." (pp. 54-55) Cécile symbolizes, for him, a new identity. This example also illustrates the need for "ego rejuvenation" through sexual exploits as described by Merriam (1980).

One of the main tasks of old age is to review the life one has lived and put it into perspective, Erikson's "ego integrity" stage (1963). Within this context, the individual reevaluates his or her relationships with others. Identity and intimacy may once more emerge, as they do for the main character in *Le noeud de vipères* (Mauriac, 1933). After the unexpected death of his wife, he reviews his relationship with her: "I would never see my wife again; there would be between us no explanations...She was dead without knowing that I wasn't just that monster, that tormentor, and there existed another man in me." (p. 191)

Conclusions

Beyond this example of the roles of identity and intimacy at various life stages, numerous other specific observations and conclusions emerged from this study which are beyond the scope of this paper. Some more general conclusions are possible, however. The stages of adult development reflected in the selected novels closely correspond to those described by Erikson. Literature not only appears to substantiate other forms of research about adult development; it helps to "`fill in' the subtle nuances of human development or an aspect of human development, generally overlooked by conventional research", in the words of McKenzie (1976, p. 3).

Furthermore, it seems that the use of literature from a foreign country and from other than contemporary time periods can serve to substantiate the universality of some aspects of adult development. Despite age differences, which most likely are specific to certain time periods and cultures, the general stages of adult development may apply to adults in other cultures. The phases experienced by the French in this study certainly appear to be very similar to those described in American and English studies. Whether such similarities could be found in literature from countries outside the realm of Western culture remains a topic for further investigation.

References

Erikson, E. (1963). *Childhood and society*. New York: W.W. Norton & Company.

Erikson, E. (1980). *Identity and the life cycle*. New York: W.W. Norton & Company.

Friedman, N. (1975). *Form and meaning in fiction*. Athens, Georgia: University of Georgia Press.

Glaser, B.G. & Strauss, A.L. (1967). The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company.

Havighurst, R.J. (1972). Developmental tasks and education,(3rd ed.). New York: Mckay.

Levinson, D.J. (1978). The seasons of a man's life. New York: Knopf.

Mendilow, A.A. (1967). The position of the present in fiction. In P. Stevick (Ed.), The theory of the novel (pp. 255-280). New York: The Free Press.

Merriam, S.B. (1980). Coping with male mid-life: A systematic analysis using literature as a data source. Washington, D.C.: University Press of America, Inc.

Munro, J. (1987). Mirrors and mentors: Adult educators and learners in canadian fiction. In R.P. Inkster (Ed.), Proceedings of the Twenty-Eighth Annual Adult Education Research Conference, (pp. 159-164). Laramie, Wyoming: University of Wyoming.

Quigley, B.A. (1986). The resisters: Non-participation in adult basic education, applying resistance theory to literary fiction. Doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois University, Dekalb, Illinois.

Literary Works

Butor, M. (1957). La modification [The modification]. Paris: Union Génerale d'Editions.

Constant, B. (1937). Adolphe-Extraits [Adolphe-Excerpts]. Paris: Larousse. (Original work published 1816.)

Mauriac, F. (1933). Le noeud de vipères [The knot of vipers]. Paris: Bernard Grasset.

Stendhal. (1969). Red and black. (R.M. Adams, Ed. and Trans.). New York: W.W. Norton & Company, Inc. (Original work published 1830.)

Note: A full list of novels used as data sources available on request from the author. All books used in the original French version are translated as closely as possible to the original, but are not professional translations and should not be quoted as such.

MODELS OF EXPERT JUDGMENT:
THE HIDDEN ASSUMPTIONS OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Nick Boreham,
University of Manchester

ABSTRACT

Perspectives on professional education are often based on oversimplified models of expertise. A taxonomy of such models is proposed. Its use in making hidden assumptions explicit is demonstrated by applying it to a current debate about experiential learning.

INTRODUCTION

The notion of mental models has become popular in cognitive science for explaining how people understand the world about them. Rather than perceiving events directly, it is proposed that people think in terms of models which filter information from the environment, provide a basis for understanding it, and limit the range of behaviour which they see as possible or desirable. The basic assumption of this paper is that adult educators have implicit models of expertise, which unconsciously bias their perceptions of alternative educational strategies.

One essential point about mental models is that they are simplifications. Because of the limits on the amount of detail the human mind can comprehend at any one time, people understand events only by simplifying them. Another point about mental models is that they are functional. That is, the way in which a mental model simplifies reality can be explained by the goals the individual is trying to achieve. His or her mental models will only contain those aspects of reality which are necessary for achieving those goals. Consequently, when different people stand in different relationships to the same object, they are likely to have different models of it.

A crucial component of expertise in almost all of the professions is judgment, the art of making decisions under uncertainty. This paper focuses on models of expert professional judgment. These, it will be argued, are hidden assumptions which underlie much debate about professional education. To make them explicit, and to encourage educators to replace simple models with more sophisticated ones, are important objectives for teaching and research in professional education.

To contribute to this, the present paper proposes a way of classifying models of expert judgment. The taxonomy contains two dimensions, representing two major sets of assumptions about which educators and practitioners are often divided. The first of these concerns the knowledge base which the professional uses in making his or her judgments, and the second concerns the process by which he or she comes to understand the client's problem.

THE KNOWLEDGE BASE

Recently, there has been much research into the kind of knowledge which experts use when making professional decisions. Out of these studies has emerged a distinction between two ways of knowing, the data-driven and the concept-driven.

Concept-driven knowing is the systematic, formalised knowledge which in the professions is mainly drawn from basic scientific research. Frequently, it is expressed in mathematical form. This is the familiar everyday material of higher education, where students of banking may be taught mathematical functions linking money supply with other economic indicators; engineers the thermodynamic principles underlying the functioning of engines; and medical students the conditional probabilities of different diseases given certain symptoms, together with Bayes' Theorem as the means of calculating a diagnosis from this data.

Data-driven knowing consists of the rules-of-thumb which a practitioner acquires over years of experience. These may be very reliable, but often have no theoretical justification. They rarely find their way into textbooks and examination syllabuses, and so are rarely taught in higher education. Much of this knowledge can be verbalised as productions, rules of the form IF(condition)THEN(action). For instance, IF(the engine runs rough)THEN(test the spark plugs). However, much professional know-how cannot be verbalised as easily as this. A great deal of it seems to be based on insight, intuition and pattern recognition, which are hard to put into words. Such knowledge often makes sense only in a particular context, and involves feelings.

THE PROCESS OF UNDERSTANDING THE CLIENT'S PROBLEM

The other dimension in our taxonomy concerns the process by which the professional person comes to understand the client's problem. An expert practitioner has had much experience. While each new case may be unique, he or she will inevitably construe it in the light of previous cases. How, then, is previous experience brought to bear in the new situation? A study of the literature on professional expertise reveals two main assumptions here.

One very common assumption is that understanding a client's problem is a process of applying stored knowledge - that the expert has a memory store of prototypical situations, and recognises each new case as an instance of something that has been met before. Whether by formal education or by learning on-the-job, the doctor is assumed to have acquired accurate mental representations of diseases; the engineer representations of forms of energy transfer; the banker representations of good and bad investment risks; and so on. These are all assumed to be inner pictures of an outer reality, and the client's problem is assumed to be understood by categorising it within this existing framework.

Against this stands a quite different view about the kind of understanding which a professional person may achieve of a client's problem. This is that the understanding is new knowledge, constructed through a process of interaction between the client and the professional. The constructivist thesis is clearly described in Schon's (1983) book The Reflective Practitioner: "the practitioner has built up a repertoire of examples, images, understandings ... when a practitioner makes sense of a situation he perceives to be unique, he [does not] subsume it under a familiar category or rule ... he sees the unfamiliar, unique situation as both similar to and different from the familiar one without at first being able to say similar or different with respect to what." On an interactionist view, what a professional learns from previous experience is not ready-made explanations for use in new situations, but the capacity to differentiate between alternative states of affairs (Bickhard and Campbell, 1987). One possibility is that recollections of previous cases are fragmentary, permitting them to be assembled in new configurations as the professional attempts to make sense of the client's problem. This implies a more fluid memory structure than most theories of human judgment have hitherto assumed (Boreham, 1988).

A TAXONOMY OF MODELS OF EXPERT JUDGMENT

Crossing these two dimensions creates a matrix in which each cell represents a different model of expert judgment.

		Process of understanding client's problem	
		APPLICATION OF STORED KNOWLEDGE	CONSTRUCTION OF NEW KNOWLEDGE
Knowledge base	DATA DRIVEN	Expert system	Facilitation
	CONCEPT DRIVEN	Applied science	Metacognition

Bottom left is the model of applied science or technical rationality, the view that the professional has a scientific theory which explains events in the world of his or her clients, and applies this by encoding each new case within that framework and reading off the solution which the theory prescribes.

Top left is a more recent model of professional judgment - the expert system. The new field of knowledge engineering claims that professional expertise can be elicited from experienced practitioners and formalised as production rules, thus storing "the compiled experience of human specialists in their domain of skill" (d'Agapeyeff, 1987) for future use.

Both these models assume that expert professional judgments are held in memory in a ready-to-use format, awaiting only the necessary cues to trigger off the appropriate category or production rule. Top left, the knowledge base is data-driven, and bottom left it is concept-driven. But in both cases, it is ready-formed.

If we abandon this for the assumption that understanding is constructed anew in each professional-client interaction, we move to the right hand side of the taxonomy. Sticking with the data-driven knowledge base, we have in the top right cell the model of professional judgment as advocacy, facilitation, or community development. One of my favourite illustrations of this model is George Brown's definition of how to succeed in politics - "find out what people are thinking, then stand up and say it." More seriously, about fifteen years ago in Scotland there was an experiment in community psychiatry which illustrates this model very clearly. Alleging the inadequacy of scientific psychiatric diagnosis, the practice was evolved of visiting the community which a sick person had come from and simply asking the patient's relatives and neighbours what had caused his or her breakdown. This was duly accepted by the professionals involved as "the diagnosis".

Staying with the assumption that knowledge is created in the process of interacting with the client, but abandoning data-driven assumptions for the belief that knowing is concept-driven, we arrive at the idea of metacognition. This is defined as the ability to monitor one's cognitive processes during problem solving. This model is manifested in the role of the consultant - someone who is brought in to observe the ongoing activities in an organisation, but who construes these in a broader framework than the regular staff. Consultancy is based on a good conceptual awareness which may be drawn from theoretical studies, but it is not (ideally) a process of providing ready made solutions. Rather, by interacting with the team, the consultant seeks to broaden their awareness of what is going on.

APPLYING THE TAXONOMY TO CURRENT DEBATES

Each of these models is an oversimplification of the decision making procedures followed by most expert professionals. Yet very often, perspectives on professional education seem to assume that just one or other of them encapsulates the whole of judgmental expertise (Boreham, 1988). By analysing current debates in terms of the proposed taxonomy, the limitations imposed by these hidden assumptions can be revealed and hopefully transcended. This will be illustrated by analysis of a current debate about experiential learning.

A popular technique in adult education is the structured experience. This is a role play or group problem solving exercise enacted in the classroom, which claims to provide experiential learning, generally about some interpersonal process. Content is deliberately trivialised to concentrate attention on the process. Structured experiences are designed to achieve a specific objective, the transactions which they permit are closely constrained, and they are published with detailed instructions for use.

But this technique is not without its detractors. Surprisingly, it has been attacked ferociously by Reg Revans, one of the most influential advocates of experiential learning for professional development since the war. Revans' own technique of action learning differs in significant respects from structured experiences (Revans, 1980). First, action learning is full of content, being located in the work place and not in the classroom. Second, action learning is not structured by the educator. Apart from arranging for participants to visit each others' places of work to exchange experiences, no direction of the interaction is given. This is in marked contrast to the structured experience, where rules, checklists, and strict control of timing are of the essence. But the greatest difference is that the designer of a structured experience claims to know in advance what the learner will discover experientially, while the whole rationale of Revans' approach is that this cannot be stated. Can these differences be explained in terms of different underlying models of the expertise which it is hoped to develop?

Referring to the vertical dimension of our taxonomy, action learning appears to assume a data-driven model of the professional knowledge base. Revans specifically excludes theory from any role in promoting good professional practice. He has described action learning as "in total opposition to the academic tradition of exhibiting logical argument, deep understanding and encyclopaedic knowledge," and - despite having been the Director of one himself - believes that Business Schools should be closed down. Instead, what Revans hopes for is increased openness to experience in professional decision making, an upward movement of ideas from the client to the professional.

Action learning is also based on the assumption that solutions to really difficult problems cannot be stored and applied to new situations - that professionals cannot be provided with ready-made solutions. Instead, says Revans, these have to be constructed through interaction in the workplace. So, referring to the horizontal dimension, action learning assumes the constructivist view of the judgmental process. This leads us to locate the model of expertise assumed by action learning in the top right cell of our taxonomy.

Structured experiences, by contrast, assume that knowledge is concept-driven. This is implicit in the way that they are usually designed around some key concept. It is also clearly shown in that standard feature of any structured experience, "construing the experience". Following the role play or activity, everyone sits down and analyses what has happened, often being provided with rating sheets for this purpose. An effort is made to verbalise, conceptualise, and then to make connections with the trainees' experiences "back home".

Revans' criticism is that structured experiences do not provide experiential learning because they do not take place in the real situation. It is difficult to deny that they are artificial. But I do not think that structured experiences are addressing the same objective as action learning. While Revans' technique assumes a data-driven model of the professional knowledge base, structured experiences seem to be used mainly for developing the ability to stand back from one's own experience and construe it - a concept-driven process. The predominant underlying model of expertise is thus the bottom right cell, metacognition. Occasionally, structured experiences may be used as an interesting way of introducing new concepts, to be remembered for future application, which places them in the bottom left cell.

This example shows how the taxonomy might be used to reveal hidden assumptions. Both structured experiences and action learning have been claimed to provide experiential learning in all its complexity. But if my analysis is correct, each technique assumes a different and oversimplified model of professional expertise. The weakness with action learning is the low priority placed on conceptual knowledge, which excludes metacognition and reduces professional horizons to what can be built out of the here and now. The weakness of structured experiences is that in order to concentrate on metacognition, they trade off actual experience. These weaknesses stem from oversimplified mental models of professional expertise, and it ought to be a priority for teaching and research in the field of professional education to promote more complex conceptualisations.

REFERENCES

Bickhard, M.H., and Campbell, R.L. (1987). *Interactionism and Genetic Epistemology*. New York: IBM Thomas J. Watson Research Center.

Boreham, N.C. (1988). Models of diagnosis and their implications for adult professional education. *Studies in the Education of Adults*, 20 (in press).

d'Agapeyeff, A. (1987). The sharing and computer exercising of human know-how. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 3, 141 - 155.

Revans, R. (1980). *Action Learning*. London: Blond and Briggs.

Sch[illegible], D.A. (1983). *The Reflective Practitioner*. London: Temple Smith.

THE PERILS AND PLEASURES OF "HUMAN CAPITAL" APPROACHES TO ADULT EDUCATION: THE CASE OF SINGAPORE

Roger Boshier
University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada

Abstract: "Contextual pragmatism" and paternalism shape the character of adult education in Singapore which must now help a docile populace become more creative.

Introduction

In Singapore few institutions have received as much sustained attention as education which is seen as a crucial instrument in the pursuit of economic development, social stability and national identity. Education, national service, family planning and the inspired but paternalistic influence of Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew have penetrated every aspect of Singaporean society in the recent decades. Unlike situations where education is being "retrenched" or "cut", Singaporeans ascribe considerable significance to it. Even cautious commentators claim that Singapore's future socio-cultural and linguistic composition, its political orientation, class structure and economic strength will largely be determined by the quality of its education system. Adults, as well as children, are expected to be educated.

Singaporeans are adroit if sometimes ruthless exponents of a human capital approach to education and the government believes an "educated" is a "productive" workforce. Engineers are appointed to head crucial institutions, such as the Vocational and Industrial Training Board, and a dominant metaphor speaks of "social engineering" (see Wilson, 1978). All political structures, including trade unions, people's associations, voluntary associations and the armed forces are used to reinforce a Singaporean identity and foster economic development. About 2.6 million people live on this small island and there are scant natural resources. Fresh water comes across the causeway from Malaysia. Because of the lack of natural resources and the omnipresent nature of its Moslem neighbours, the government embarked on "human resource development" in an attempt to become the "Switzerland" of Asia. In some respects Singapore is the "learning society" advocated by Faure (1972) but, in other respects, it involves idiosyncratic concepts and processes. The Singaporean approach to education involves a radical, Asian, and some say, paternalistic application of human capital theory. Ironically, its very success now threatens the future.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the context for adult education in Singapore, and show how "Asian values" interact with the "psychological legs" (docility and paternalism) that buttress a remarkable and, in some respects, successful application of human capital theory.

Context

Singapore was founded as a British colony in 1819 and, largely because of its strategic location on the straits of

Malacca, grew rapidly and attained considerable wealth and significance. By the turn of the century it was the fulcrum on which British interests in East Asia turned. It had a population with a well developed work ethic, an efficient administration and, even in the early days, a focus on human resource development. British rule ended with the election of Lee's People's Action Party in 1959.

The contemporary context for education largely stems from Singapore's demography, geopolitical position and ideology (Gopinathan, 1987). Of the approximately 2.6 million people in Singapore the largest group are Chinese and considerable energy has been expended to disabuse visitors and Malay neighbours of the notion that Singapore is a "Third China". Like Canada, Singapore is a multilingual country and the emphasis on English is more a recognition of geopolitical realities than a deference to former colonial masters. Because of its strategic location and dependence on tourists, Singapore is also seen by some to be vulnerable to "undesireable western influences" and became famous in the 1960's for demanding haircuts for hirsute visitors. Today these influences are combatted through relentless programs of mass education, national service and school-based curricula designed to build a Singaporean identity. This is a straight-laced society and when David Bowie performed in the national stadium he was hard-pressed to arouse any kind of enthusiasm or reaction. A "politics of survival" mentality prevails and the rationale for this stems from the fact Singapore is surrounded by populous Moselm countries. The periodic creation of "crisis" and the notion of "total defence" fuels feelings of vulnerability.

Singapore is a modern, clean and aesthetically appealing city-state just a few degrees from the equator. The Lee government manifests an unparalleled sense of purposiveness and efficiency. According to Gopinathan (1987, 201) "the single-minded drive to achieve, to go one better, the passion with which the principle of cost effectiveness is pursued are abundantly clear both in national life and education". Controversial decisions, often involving the banning, censorship or restriction in circulation of foreign publications, or matters relating to priorities associated with family planning, or the allocation of public housing, or the imprisonment without trial of Catholic social workers - alleged Marxists prone to use terms like "conscientization" (see Far Eastern Economic Review, 22 Oct., 1987) - are often defended on the grounds that the alternatives constituted a soft option. Thus it is not surprising that perserverance, performance and discipline are highly desireable values and, as a result, the education system is competitive and "exam-oriented". Formal education is highly valued and failure or the inability to secure one of the few places at the National University can incur a stigma and, for some unfortunates, a reason for suicide.

Schooling

PAP leaders used vigour, ingenuity and immense political compromise to shuck off the British and yet the intensely competitive education system retains its "colonial" structure and ethos. It is designed to lessen the effects of inter-ethnic diversity and provide common experiences that will promote a Singaporean identity and build skills, knowledge and values that contribute to national development. After three years of infant education, learners confront the first of the controversial barriers used to "stream" people. At around eight years of age children are streamed into a "normal bilingual", "extended bilingual" or "monolingual" course. Exams are administered to these children and, although lateral transfers are supposed to be possible later in life, this initial streaming has a major and long-term impact on a person's career with the "N" stream heading to university and the "M" stream to "vocational" (or trades) training. For assessment purposes the Ministry of Education maintains a bank of test items used to stream children. At secondary school the top ten percent of those who passed the primary school leaving exam are enrolled in a "special course" and will sit their 'O' level exams after four years. They are effectively bilingual and work in two languages. The "express" course is for those who have "done well" (Ministry of Education, 1986) and take one language at a "first" level, and another at a "second". The "normal" course is for "slower" pupils and they sit for "N" levels after four years. Pupils in the special, express and fifth year normal courses sit for 'O' levels at age 16 or 17 and, if successful, may proceed to a junior college, a pre-university centre, a Polytechnic or courses run by a Vocational and Industrial Training Board. Those who have only attained an 'N' level may proceed to the VITB for vocational training. The system is very competitive and, in other socio-cultural settings, authorities would not be comfortable with the loss of face (an important aversive reinforcer) or erosion of self esteem associated with it. The influential Goh (1972) report noted that out of every 1000 pupils who enter primary school only 94 get into a tertiary institution. According to Chua (1985) only eight percent of each cohort survive the examinations and enter university.

The insistence on bilingualism in schools is controversial because, for about 85 percent of pupils, the two school languages are not those used at home. In an exam-oriented system that depends on language, educational "success" is greatly affected. There is significant opposition to streaming at "primary three" but the government insistence on this can be understood when considered in the context of its persistent obsession with genetics and socio-biology. Protests about streaming are seen as protests "in principle" (Tay Eng Soon, Straits Times, 19 Aug., 1984) which is antithetical to "contextual pragmatism" which, it is claimed, "works". Streaming is alleged to work because it reflects "natural intelligence". Significantly, the study of psychology is not encouraged in Singapore and yet important population, education and other policies are based on it. For example, senior leaders appear to believe that most variance in intelligence is genetically determined and thus early streaming just reflects "nature". As Chua (1985) noted, instead of channelling resources to help the disadvantaged, resources are used to enrich those in relatively privileged positions. "Instead of attempting some distributive social justice, 'meritocratic' inequality is unapologetically accepted as a consequence of 'nature'. This process is used to identify the "no more than five percent" that will lead the nation.

Adult and Continuing Education

"Continuing education" has become the umbrella term that encompasses a broad spectrum of "training" and "adult education" activities. A considerable amount of education for adults occurs in nonformal settings such as business and industry, professional associations, statutory boards, the armed forces, hospitals, community organizations and the Extramural department of the National University. There is a Singapore Polytechnic, largely involved with the training of technologists, the Ngee Ann Polytechnic, which offers diplomas in engineering, business and computer studies, and the Nanyang Technological Institute which offers practice-oriented engineering courses. The annual intake at the National University is around 4500. Of the approximately 14,500 students enrolled there, about 1000 are in postgraduate courses (Ministry of Education, 1986). Teachers are trained at an Institute of Education. There is a Singapore Association for Continuing Education which attempts to bring a sense of unity to this diverse field, provides training for its members, and exerts considerable influence on the Asian South-Pacific Bureau of Adult Education.

An innovative part of the field is the Skills Development Fund derived from a payroll tax and used to subsidize "approved" (i.e. vocationally-oriented) training. But the most outstanding feature of adult education are mass campaigns used to educate, persuade and cajole the populace about spitting, litter, pests, lungs, family planning, drugs, road safety, speaking Mandarin, cancer, leprosy, smoking, courtesy and productivity (Tham, 1986). Singaporeans have grown nonchalant about campaigns but visitors are struck by their integrated nature. Some of the graphics, such as those used in the recent anti-smoking campaign, are imaginative and entertaining. Campaigns goals are enforced and various father figures hector the populace about undesireable habits.

Contextual Pragmatism

When the state manages education, it is inevitably guided by an ideology or philosophy. Some Singaporeans claim their brand of pragmatism does not involve any ideology or philosophy but even this claim is evidence for the existence of "contextual pragmatism" which, combined with paternalism and Chinese tradition, greatly shapes the character of adult education in Singapore.

Chua (1985) claims it is necessary to distinguish the "operant" from the "utopian" elements in the pragmatism of Lee's People's Action Party. The "operants" concern the elements politicians use to justify day-to-day decisions; the "utopian" elements are the long term goals they seek. In the "final" analysis the PAP wants a democratic society with all the attributes normally associated with it, such as a political culture where people have the freedom to express opinions, and the collective good is balanced with the needs of individuals. Clearly there must be some internal consistency between the utopian and operant elements but Chua claims that, in Singapore, "policies ... rationalized on practical grounds turn out to be undemocratic in serious ways". All elements of life are harnessed to the pursuit of economic growth and "instrumental rationality", the operant arm of contextual pragmatism, has become the dominant ideology. Even the opening of a station on the mass transit system is used to lecture the populace about identity.

Social Discipline

The need for a "disciplined" labour force has created a docility that operates in many spheres of social and political life. The "first generation" of PAP leaders see themselves as the custodians of the future and, as such, exert discipline. Although a "new generation" of leaders is being groomed to replace the founding fathers the personality of Lee Kuan Yew is a colossus that straddles the modern history of Singapore (George, 1984).

Lee can be genial or autocratic and has little patience with outsiders who pontificate about him or Singapore. He studied law at Cambridge university and has been on a lifelong struggle against the forces of entropy - chaos, slackness, irrationality and death (Minchin, 1986). A dominant and pervasive psychoanalytic metaphor portrays him as "father" who creates and reinforces uncertainty to keep the "children" in line. In general, the children hold the father in a mixture of fear, respect and admiration. Lee metes out strong punishment for "disobedience" and, despite his outstanding achievements, often appears unwilling to trust the children to abide by his wishes. Lee's treatment of Devan Nair, his former President and friend (see Asiaweek, April 12, 1985), his threat to rethink the "one man, one vote" system when the children had the temerity to vote in two opposition members, the way he silenced opposition gadfly J. Jeyaretnam (see Time, Sept. 8, 1986) and his irritation with even the most modest and responsible critics, when coupled with decades of "contextual pragmatism" and a security apparatus that permits arrests without trial, is all echoed in pedagogical practices that, for decades, have reinforced conformity and docility. It has also created a social fabric curiously vulnerable to the predation of religious activists and fundamentalists (see Far Eastern Economic Review, 2 July, 1988). Education, even classroom practice, is both shaped by and helps create the socio-political fabric of Singapore.

Lee's omnipresence, the pervasive paternalism, coupled with the intense competitiveness of the education system and the traditional Chinese respect for the teacher whose authority is rarely challenged, does not create a receptive climate for the adoption of "participatory" or "andragogical" principles of adult education. Ironically, it is the Chinese metaphor of the "stuffed duck" that best summarizes the situation although, for some years, the Singapore Institute of Management and the Continuing Education Association have welcomed the use of participatory techniques in their training courses. Despite these exceptions, the BEST (Basic Education for Skills Training) program designed to upgrade workers skills, is largely a teacher-centred process of "adult schooling" and it is one of the flagships in Singapore's attempt to restructure their economy.

In recent years, some commentators have wondered if a docile populace will be able to take the next steps in economic restructuring. Socio-biology, telecommunications, computers and related "high-tech" fields require imagination, diversity, playfulness and the free exchange of ideas. Thus Lim (1983) wrote of the need for a "creative" society, a 1986 report on the economy said future "manpower development strategies" should "encourage the development of more creative and flexible skills through broad-based education", and a plethora of consultants, including Edward De Bono, have been brought in to teach lateral thinking and creativity. But it is difficult to "engineer" creativity particularly when it flies in the face of an entrenched social history.

Singapore represents one of the more spectacular examples of human capital theory used for "development". But the uniqueness of Lee's experiment, and the frequent recourse to stern lectures, coupled with a faltering birthrate among graduate women, has created a vulnerability which poses a powerful challenge to contextual pragmatism and paternalism. Ironically, the biggest challenge to Lee's authority, and the overwhelming dominance of the PAP, stems from the success of their education policy. As educational levels increase, so does the impatience with fatherly advice, and the ability to discern real from imagined crises. The post-1959 accomplishments are fundamentally different from the tasks that lie ahead. But in all available futures, adult and continuing education occupy centre stage although props and directions are bound to change as Singaporeans confront the challenge posed by the need for creativity.

REFERENCES

Chua, B.H. (1985). Pragmatism of the People's Action Party government in Singapore. S.E. Asian journal of social science, 13, (2), 29-46.

Faure, E. Learning to be. Paris: UNESCO, 1972.

George, T.J.S. (1984). Lee Kuan Yew's Singapore. Singapore: Eastern Universities Press.

Goh, K.S. (1972). The economics of modernization. Singapore: Asia Pacific Press.

Gopinathan, S. (1987). 'Education'. In Quah, J.S.T., Chan, H.C., and Seah, C.M. (Eds.) Government and politics of Singapore. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 197-232.

Lim, W.S.W. (1983). 'Towards a creative society'. In Saw, S.W. and Bhathal, R.S. Singapore: Towards the year 2000. Singapore: Singapore Association for the Advancement of Science, 156-162.

Minchin, J. (1986). No man is an island. Sydney: Allen and Unwin.

Ministry of Education (1986) Education in Singapore. Singapore: Public Relations Unit, Ministry of Education.

Tham, K.W. (1986) 'National campaigns'. In Singapore: Taking stock: Readings for the general paper. Singapore: Federal Publications, 41-57.

Wilson, H.E. (1978). Social engineering in Singapore. Singapore: Singapore University Press.

AN ANALYSIS AND CRITIQUE OF THE CONCEPT OF SELF IN SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING: TOWARD A MORE ROBUST CONSTRUCT FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Marcie Boucouvalas[1]

Abstract: Investigation of the concept of "self" as it appears, often implicit, in the literature of self-directed learning revealed an almost exclusive emphasis on the autonomous (separate) self thus affording a partial rendition of selfhood. Grounded in the work of Angyal (1941) and supported by the literature on adult development, the homonomous (connected) self is discussed as the complementary dimension to selfhood. A conceptualization of self which includes both autonomous and homonomous dimensions can serve as a more robust construct for both research and practice on an international basis.

Introduction

Permeating the literature on adult learning and education is the general theme of developing self-directed and self-directing learners. Critiques are emerging on the meaning of self-direction, debates arising as to the degree to which one can be self-directing, and discussions proliferating on the endogenous and exogenous (contextual) catalysts and constraints relevant to the reality of actualizing self-direction in learning. Less attention, however, has been given to an examination and explication of the concept of self as employed in the literature. Toward this end, the presently reported inquiry undertook an analysis of the literature on self-directed learning.

The paper will progress through the following sequence: a) brief report on the analysis of the concept of self as explicitly and implicitly articulated in the literature on self-directed learning and discussion of findings which revealed with a few exceptions the common themes of independence and autonomy as central, b) demonstration from the literature on adult development that development of autonomy is only a one-sided rendition of growth toward full humanness and introduction and discussion of homonomy as the complementary dimension to total growth, c) exploration of the need to embrace a more complete construct of self for both research and practice in the area of self-directed learning, and d) posing of a challenge to adult educators to consider embracing this more robust construct of self, particularly for work on an international basis.

Approach

The inquiry began as a curiosity regarding the explicit and implicit renditions of the concept of self in the literature of self-directed learning. The works of Tough (1971, 1979, 1978, 1982) and Knowles (1975, 1980, 1984a, 1984b,) are most often associated as catalysts in the self-directed learning movement within the field of adult education. Consequently, a review of their works was followed by examination of major review articles (Brookfield, 1984; Caffarella & O'Donnell, 1987, 1988); other books and articles (for example, Boud. 1981; Brookfield, 1981, 1985, 1988; Penland, 1979, and others), and the most recent compendium of research and think-pieces in the field (Long, 1988).

---

[1] Associate Professor, Virginia Polytechnic Institute & State University Graduate Center, 2990 Telestar Court, Falls Church, VA 22042, USA

The findings suggested both a lack of attention to a discussion of the meaning of self and an almost exclusive focus on development of autonomous capacities, an achievement which is stressed by Western cultures. Consequently, based on the foundational work of Angyal (1941), discussed below, the complementary dimension of homonomy is introduced and evidence offered from three streams of the adult development literature that a complete rendition of self necessitates attention to both autonomous and homonomous dimensions.

Encapulated Analysis of the Literature on Self-Directed Learning

Due to space constraints, it is not possible to provide an in-depth report of the systematic analysis afforded the literature and to detail explicit assertions (although they are more often implicit assumptions) about the way "self" is conceptualized. The theme of autonomy, however, is continually apparent. Commonly corroborated features are independence, individual responsibility, and personal growth. All these descriptors form an integral part of the development of autonomy or the autonomous self. Indeed, the literature on self-directed learning seems to have given almost exclusive attention to autonomous capacities and achievements.

Tough and Knowles, however, refer to collaborative learning and team work by self-directed learners. Moreover, Caffarella (1988), Kasworm (1988), and others suggest that self-directed learning is often executed in an interdependent manner--tapping into human resources within environmental and sometimes organizational contexts. The dimension of self, however, which derives meaning from and is capable of engaging in this manner has not been articulated.

As noted above, the complimentary dimension in the human growth process is the movement toward homonomy, manifested as the homonomous self. Without an understanding and articulation of the homonomous dimension to the self the literature on self-directed learning becomes at best partial and incomplete and at minimum culture bound, particularly since different cultures tend to nourish in varying degrees growth in each dimension.

Toward a More Complete Construct of Self

The concept of homonomy, termed as such, was first articulated by Andras Angyal (M.D., Ph.D.) in his 1941 seminal work which offered an holistic frame of reference for disciplines affiliated with the human realm in some manner or form (for example, biologists, social anthropologists, psychologists, psychiatrists, and others for whom he felt the work may be beneficial).

The movement toward autonomy and homonomy are complementary dimensions of self's growth. While the pull toward autonomy involves becoming independent, unique, and individualistic, the pull toward homonomy entails the experience of being part of meaningful wholes and in harmony with superindividual units such as family, social group, culture, and cosmic order. The sources of motivation likewise differ for each dimension. Mastery, control, and the like characterize the autonomous thrust, while participating in something greater than the individual self characterizes homonomy. A brief differentiation is offered below.

Autonomy	Homonomy
Individualistic	Collective
Self-Assertion	Superindividual wholes in which a person submerges oneself
Goal: master, govern environment	Sharing
Achievement	Participation
Conquest	Union
Individual Self-Expansion	Expands beyond narrow individual self; Broadening beyond purely individualistic limits
Craving	Longing
Possession, dominate, master object, subordination of outside factors to organism	Unite with, belong to, share and participate in object of longing, directed toward environment
Behavior: Restless, drive toward advancement, stimulus- response, rational nature	Peaceful, aim at permanence, impression-expression, non-rational nature
Heraclitian world picture	Platonic world picture

Angyal emphasized that the homonomous dimension of selfhood has been a chief concern of theologians, philosophers, and literary writers, but hardly explored by scientists. As he lamented, "unfortunately, too little scientifically useful information is available at present concerning man's homonomous attitudes and behaviors" (p. 174).

In the forty years which have elapsed since his publication much has changed. Perhaps of fundamental relevance is the research of physicist Bohm (1971, 1973, 1980) on the nature of matter (and reality). Bohm talks of the explicate--or unfolded--dimension in which matter and objects appear separate as perceived by the human senses; and the implicate (enfolded within explicate) order to the universe at the subatomic level where matter is in constant motion and flux and apparently interconnected. The parallel to the autonomous and homonomous dimensions of self is apparent.

The homonomous dimension as a complement to the autonomous in defining the self is also supported by the expanding literature base in adult development. Three streams of literature are particularly relevant: a) study of women's development, b) androgyny, c) transpersonal adult development.

Women's Development

Gilligan (1982) has been on the vanguard of the movement to better understand women's development with her thesis that women's development involves a striving for attachment and connection more than men's development which emphasizes separation. One can recognize the homonomous and autonomous dimensions of self represented. In a different but related research effort Belensky and others (1986) have investigated women's ways of learning, knowing, and valuing. Their results revealed, among other things, the two phenomena of "separate" and "connected" knowing predicated in large part on the relationship between the self ("knower") and the object of knowing (human and material) Separate knowing, it seems, entails critical thinking (and the doubting which accompanies it), listening to reason (argument and debate as discourse), and meaning-making which is impersonal. In contrast, empathy is at heart of gaining access to knowledge in "connected" knowing. Believing, rather than doubting, characterizes the manner in which they are able to understand many points of view. Accordingly, a nonjudgmental stance often accompanies connected knowing. The authors claim that separate knowing is a familiar "voice" well researched and discussed, but that connected knowing represents a little researched area, as does the integration of separate and connected knowing observed in some of the interviewees. The authors suggest that more women are connected knowers, but are quick to point out that some men may be too; and others have been observed as integrated and balanced with regard to "separate" and "connected" ways of knowing.

An important issue arises in considering whether and to what extent one can generalize claims about adult development and learning on the basis of a biological sex construct (i.e. male or female). Another perspective is provided by the literature on psychological androgyny.

Psychological Androgyny

Psychological androgyny refers to the blending in one person of traits stereotypically considered "masculine" or "feminine" in the gender (rather than biological) sense. Purportedly masculine are traits such as rationality and assertiveness and accorded feminine designation are traits such as compassion and communion. Once again, the parallels with autonomy and homonomy are obvious. Androgynous individuals, be they biologically male or female, tend to be balanced in both these realms. They are able to call upon the appropriate mode according to the demands of the context or blend both dimensions into one act (for example, firing someone but doing it with compassion) (Boucouvalas, 1984). One might say that the self of androgynous beings is balanced on autonomous and homonomous dimensions, a transcending of dualities which is so characteristic of adult development (particularly in the dialectical sense of viewing previously perceived antithetical matters (for example, autonomy and homonomy) as complementary parts of a greater whole. Transcendence is likewise an integral part of the third stream of literature supportive of the homonomous dimension as a complement to the autonomous in defining the self: that of transpersonal adult development.

Transpersonal Adult Development

This stream of literature is devoted to understanding that part of the human phenomenon that transcends identification only with the individual, personal self--thus the term transpersonal. Victor Frankyl, now a member of the Board of Editors for the Journal of Transpersonal Psychology has commented that it is this larger sense of self and the accompanying meaning which accrues from motivation which transcend one's own skin (and a "what is in it for me" frame of mind) that enabled those in concentration camps to survive. Their meaning was derived from an identity greater than one's individual self. A transpersonal self, therefore, includes homonomous (in addition the autonomous) dimensions. The relationship of the transpersonal perspective to international work in adult education has been discussed elsewhere (Boucouvalas, 1984b).

A More Robust Construct of Self for International Work

As noted by Angyal, the frequency of autonomous and homonomous tendencies differs among individuals and varies among cultures. He gives the example of Western culture which because of its emphasis on power and achievement, can discourage but not obliterate the homonomous tendency which is fundamental to the nature of humankind. Some homonomous expression is essential for "normal adjustment."

Consequently, adult educators are challenged to consider a more enlarged and complete conceptualization of self to undergird research and practice in self-directed learning. The challenges are multi-fold since it may take some accommodation of cognitive structure, some alterations in perceptions, and in consciousness itself to attend to a sense of self which includes more than the individual and in which autonomy is not the end-goal of development, but only a dimension, a partial rendition of growth toward full selfhood.

References

Angyal, A. (1941). Foundations for a science of personality. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press for the Commonwealth Fund.

Belensky, M.F. et al. (1986). Women's ways of knowing: The development of self, voice, and mind. New York: Basic Books.

Bohm, D. (1971). Quantum theory as an indicator of a new order in physics. Part A: The development of a new order as shown through the history of physics. Foundations of Physics, 1(4), 359-381.

Bohm, D. (1973). Quantum theory as an indicator of a new order in physics. Part B: Implicate and explicate order in physical law. Foundations of Physics, 3(2), 139-168.

Bohm, D. (1980). Wholeness and the implicate order. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Boucouvalas, M. (1984a). Androgyny: An emerging concept for reflection and research in adult development. In W.M. Rivera & S.M. Walker (Eds.). Proceedings of the Sixth Lifelong Learning Research Conference, pp 1-5. College Park, MD: University of Maryland.

Boucouvalas, M. (1984b). Transpersonal psychology: Guiding image for the advancement of international adult education. Graduate Studies Journal, (University of the District of Columbia, 2, 17-35.

Boud, D. (1981). Developing student autonomy in learning. New York: Nichols.

Brookfield, S.D. (1981). Independent adult learning. Studies in Adult Education, 13(1), 15-27.

Brookfield, S.D. (1984). Self-directed adult learning: A critical paradigm. Adult Education Quarterly, 35, 59-71.

Brookfield, S.D. (1985). Self-directed learning: From theory to practice. New Directions for Continuing Education, No. 26. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brookfield, S.D. (1988). Conceptual, methodological, and practical ambiguities in self-directed learning. In H.B. Long and Associates (Eds.). Self-directed learning: Application and theory. Athens, GA: University of Georgia.

Caffarella, R., & O'Donnell, J.M. (1987). Self-directed adult learning: A critical paradigm revisted. Adult Education Quarterly, 37(4), 199-211.

Caffarella, R., & O'Donnell, J.M. (1988). Research in self-directed learning: Past, present and future trends. In H.B. Long and Associates (Eds.). Self-directed learning: Application and theory. Athens, GA: University of Georgia.

Gilligan, C. (1982). In a different voice. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Kasworm, C. (1988). Self-directed learning in institutional contexts: An exploratory study of adult self-directed learners in higher education. In H.B. Long and Associates (Eds.). Self-directed learning: Application and theory. Athens, GA: University of Georgia.

Knowles, M.S. (1975). Self-directed learning. New York: Association Press.

Knowles, M.S. (1980). The modern practice of adult education, (2nd ed.). New York: Association Press.

Knowles, M.S. (1984a). The adult learner: A neglected species, (3rd ed.). Houston: Gulf.

Knowles, M.S. (1984b). Andragogy in action. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Long, H.B. and Associates (Eds.). (1988). Self-directed learning: Application and theory. Athens, GA: University of Georgia.

Penland, P. (1979). Self-initiated learning. Adult Education, 29(3), 170-179.

Tough, A.M. (1971, 1979). The adult's learning projects (1st ed., 2nd ed.). Ontario, Canada: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Tough, A.M. (1978). Major learning efforts: Recent research and future directions. Adult Education, 28, 250-263.

Tough, A.M. (1982). Intentional changes. Chicago: Follett.

HISPANIC WOMEN AT MIDLIFE: A STUDY OF CONFLICTS

Breda Murphy Bova, Ph.D. & Rebecca R. Phillips, Ph.D.
University of New Mexico Los Alamos National Laboratory

ABSTRACT

The purpose for the study was to fill the educational and adult development research voids in studies of ethnic and gender populations. The 47 Hispanic women interviewed revealed similarities with regard to family and relationships, cultural concerns, work-related issues, and personal development. Emergent research questions are reported.

BACKGROUND

The purpose for this study was to investigate and describe the lives of Hispanic women at midlife. Educational research needs to focus on specific populations and adult development research is lacking in studies of ethnic and gender populations. This research is an attempt to satisfy that void by capturing in the words of these women the issues that shaped their present lives, central themes in their lives now, and their view of the future.

The Hispanic woman of the 1980's is a product of past cultural traditions and beliefs, encompassing family relations, marriage, education, and work, among others. She has witnessed changes in family structure, discrimination, and a lack of mentoring. Her ethnic background and gender have created diverse expectations for herself, her family, the community and organizations that she interacts with on a daily basis.

METHODOLOGY

The researchers utilized naturalistic inquiry. The subjects for this study were 47 Hispanic women from the Southwestern U.S. between the ages of 35 and 50. Demographic information such as marital status, present employment, income, education, and parental status were also collected to ensure a representative sample. The data were collected during taped in-depth, three to four hour interviews with individual subjects. Questions for the study focused on 1) critical events, 2) areas of conflict, 3) future hopes and dreams, and 4) orientation to life with the respect self, relationships, and work. Coding categories were then developed from the information to determine the themes and patterns in the lives of these women relating to the research questions.

This age and sex cohort was chosen because its members were raised with traditional and basic values concerning religion, the family, and the home; and it corresponds with the "midlife" designation in adult education literature. Cohort members are now operating in a society where, in many cases, they have had to consider compromising or changing those values. The findings from this study will add to our adult development knowledge base, specifically regarding the development of women.

FINDINGS

The Hispanic women interviewed expressed some very strong similarities (coding categories) with regard to family and relationships, cultural concerns, work-related issues, and personal development.

Relationships

The extended family is quite common in the Hispanic culture; close emotional ties among family members are developed and a tightly-knit family group is formed. For Hispanic women, the extended family is not only an important source of emotional support, but is also a crucial resource for solving practical problems. The Hispanic woman's role as wife and mother is the source of her culturally-sanctioned power and authority; the Latin culture places high regard for the family's position. Therefore, the work role assumed by the Hispanic woman is still overshadowed by the home setting. Even in cases of geographical distance, communications in the extended family continue and the nucleus remains strong (Alcalay).

The family, in many cases, was both a source of conflict and a source of support for our subjects. Conflicts grounded in the family often had to do with roles: familial and social. Parents frequently favored male children causing pronounced sibling rivalry.

> I had [conflicts] with my brothers, because of the attitude, the culture, always giving man the privileges. And my mother pushed it. I couldn't accept it even as a child. But my mother and those of her generation were brought up with idea and were somehow brainwashed from when they were babies and they expected us to be that way. I think its caused a lot of problems. Even if you're brainwashed it doesn't make a lot of sense that the man is supposed to have all the rights. Women were supposed to make all the meals, but still work in the fields. My older brothers were allowed to use the car, but the girls couldn't go out except to church on Sunday morning and then we came back home. No social life. (Sheila, 43, unmarried, state employee)

Rosa, a 37 year old mother of a ten month old child said, "Almost all of the father's eggs are set in the first son, 'hermano major' . . . My oldest brother was extremely catered to as a child . . . The oldest daughter looked after the oldest brother." Yet despite this, "The burden on me wasn't so heavy as the one placed on my older brother."

Husbands' expectations of their wives were not always the subject's expectations of themselves. Jane, a year old educator, 35, was married to a "traditional Hispanic male who did not believe women should be working outside the home . . . They should have babies and stay home. It was too hard being what he wanted . . . too hard being what I wanted so . . . " A majority of the women married to non-Hispanics said their husbands were supportive of their wishes and ambition. Yet even this has not been without sacrifice. Tina, a counselor, 45, mother of a 16 year old girl and 15 year old twin boys described her cross-cultural marriage:

> I think that at the time that I married, I was conscious that I was giving up something . . . I might have been happier marrying into the Hispanic culture. I think it has been stressful at times for Mark. to accept values and attitudes that my family has. I really enjoy the loyalty part of the Mexican family. Because the culture is generally family oriented. Even if it is in the state of disintegration or payoffs - the family is still, I think, the focal point. And I think there have been times when I have suffered stress or guilt because . . . I became a little detached from my family here and there except by phone. And I feel that my home is not as open to my sisters or brothers or nephews and nieces simply because my home is very American, very wasp, very Protestant in that way. That his sense of space and privacy is so defined and his sense of noise level and interruptions and invasion is so acute and having grown up with a lot of people around me and very limited space, my space is not physical. My sense of loving really depends on having a family network and I gave that up. So when we have crises in our family, or when I am depressed or hurt, I don't get on the phone and call for my sisters, I've lost them. I help them, sometimes they call me or I help my nephews and nieces and when there is a funeral or something really wild, I'll just get on the plane and go back. But I really feel that I've severed a few of those ties. For

> my mother, and my family understand that. They understand that I stepped out of the culture.

Most of our subjects viewed their mothers as very strong women who were forced to submit to cultural norms. Alice, 51, has seen her relationship with her sisters change, it has not changed with her mother. "I am not as close to my mother. She is the perfect Hispanic mother. She gets up early, cleans, cooks, and waits on us hand and foot. She may be a real Hispanic woman. She is not on the same wave length. My problems are foreign to her." Rosa described her mother's situation:

> My mother, on the surface, admits she gives in to my father but underneath, she just goes out there and does it her own way. She gives him suggestions and make him believe it's his idea; she gets what she wants. My father refused to let her work outside the home...she has resented that. She still does volunteer work at the libraries and works with retired citizens. Earning her own check would have given her some independence...but their relationship has been so set for so many years she wasn't really willing to buck the system. And his attitude was typically Hispanic. He didn't want to be embarrassed thinking his wife had to go to work.

Many of these mothers became the biggest rooters and supporters for these women in the future giving them the confidence to become whatever it was they chose.

Ethnic/Cultural Concerns

All of the women in our study reported being influenced by Hispanic cultural traditions. Many of them experienced discrimination due to their ethnicity.

> One story that stands out in my mind...my dad was always very fair and had blue eyes...you can't tell that by looking at me. I look like my mother. He used to go to this barber shop and get his hair cut and one day he took my brother, who is dark the way I am, and they found out he was a 'Mexican' and after that they wouldn't cut his hair. Just ridiculous things like that. I mean you have no idea some of the things I went through...and it was very, very, painful. (Isabela, 50 year old mother of six)

Tina described prejudice from her husband's family:

> I have also suffered in Mark's family some - in that I felt great prejudice. In a way, I think - though not so much anymore because we've been together for so long that people might think maybe the marriage will survive. It's really funny because when we married, my father-in-law does not like foreigners, black people and all of that, and he told Mark even when we were engaged, he made it very clear to Mark that he could set him up to marry well. He could have married money, you know, whatever. And in a way I feel Mark married me because I was so dark - it was his way of getting back to his father. I don't doubt that Mark really loved me but he also had the added bonus that he could sneer at his father, I'm going to marry somebody who is poor and somebody who --- you know. But I did suffer a few embarrassing moments in public, in the family setting. They made it very clear - my father-in-law made it very clear that Mark married beneath him.

Many related that the Hispanic culture was changing and being absorbed into American society. Some expressed concern about the Hispanic's youth lack of knowledge about the Spanish language as a loss of culture and expression unique to the Hispanic people. Loss of their language came up repeatedly as a great concern. A concern because language is an integral part of a culture.

Polar positions were taken on speaking Spanish as a means toward preserving the culture. One of our subjects said, "You can preserve the culture, you don't have to carry it to extremes. I mean, we live in America! and we speak English here and fine if you learn to speak ten different languages, so what? English is our language here." This same woman said she did a disservice to her sons not teaching them Spanish because it would have helped them in their work.

Some women chose to study Spanish, two majored in it in college and one woman reminded us that elimination of language is a means used by one culture to control another's. "When we were growing up it was during the time that children were punished for speaking Spanish. My father had been punished, my mother had been punished, so none of us were taught Spanish at all...I chose to study it to be in that culture."

Work Issues

Hayghe reports that the Hispanic woman has relatively low labor force participation rates due to their cultural heritage. Part of the background of Spanish colonialism emphasized homemaking, childbearing, and the child rearing role of women; the bulk of these Hispanic wives, if employed, are concentrated in sales, administrative, and technical support. Sanchez and Cruz state:

> For those Hispanics who find themselves living in the traditional mode but beginning to ask questions about untried personal and familial alternatives, the situation is complicated by obligations and responsibilities to others, such as children. Efforts to return to school or work require considerable mobilization of economic and personal resources, support, and information.

Support that is provided is often ambiguous. Rosa said:

> I'm supposed to be a woman and not have alot of ambition, I guess, even though they [parental messages] have been contradictory. My father said when I went to college he was so afraid I'd quit, get married . . . So he pushed me to go through school but that's on one level of his thoughts. there's another level that's 'why aren't you like your younger sister . . . she likes to stay at home and take care of her husband - She's a good cook and you're not - she's a good housekeeper, you're not.' Double messages all over the place.

Work was a great source of accomplishment for most of the women who worked for pay. However, one of their regrets was the lack of mentoring they received. Most subjects attributed this to their ethnicity and sex. Many of their comments concerning this issue are the same that women in general face in the work force. One subject reported having a male mentor and that the relationship was prematurely ended due to rumors of an affair.

Other subjects described the lack of career advancement due to ethnicity and gender. Martha described her daughter's experience, "There's always discrimination . . . there's people that have come in and they're Anglo, and boy, they get to the top very fast . . . and she was better qualified than alot of people that came in and immediately they made it to the top until she started speaking up."

While one woman described her success in adopting the Anglo male model of success in the work place, many women felt that they were viewed as not being able to be competitive. As one of our women stated "we are often pictured as passive, bending to the will of men, especially to the men of her family and the needs of her children. No one will take me seriously." They felt that in order to achieve, "the Hispanic woman cannot be just good or adequate she may have to become an overachieving 'superstar' in order to obtain respect from peers."

Personal Development

The majority of the women in our study have been greatly influenced by Hispanic cultural traditions and their expectations for women.

> It's no accident . . . that I came out of these roots that I did, to come here to do these things. It's very special and that feels good . . . coming to find out who I am has been such a painful search that it feels good to me to be able to say, I'm liking myself better everyday and I know how special I am and a lot of that comes out of . . . the roots, for me as a hispanic woman. (Gloria, 48 year old training coordinator)

About two thirds of the respondents indicated they had experienced discrimination in numerous ways and most still carried a sense of deep pain and hurt. However, all of them indicated that this experience made them stronger and better able to cope.

Many of the respondents talked about the influence of religion especially the Catholic Church on their lives. About half of the respondents indicated that the church had a positive effect on them. One such response came from Conchita, a 46 year old woman in a small rural town. The Catholic schools gave Conchita and her classmates a much needed push to go to college. "The Sisters encouraged us to go to college. They expected all of us to go to college. I would say that the student body didn't think about going to college, but the Sisters did. The Sisters started talking about it in grade school". She added that most of the Hispanic children did not go to college because of the lack of motivation and encouragement from home and then the lack of finances.

But for a few, the church was a source of conflict. Nina, a 35 year old health care professional, has totally rejected organized religion because of early experiences with the church that required unquestioning obedience. She felt that in some manner this was damaging to her development as a woman. Carol, a recent rape victim was angry with God for allowing the attack to happen, yet she turned to the Church for solace and comfort. Despite leaving the convent, one of our subjects said "what I did get from the Sisters of Charity was a deep spirituality and a sense of community, the best of what's spiritual and seeking, a desire to know."

Generally, all of the respondents felt good about being a woman today and seemed optimistic in the future. Carmen, a 35 year old doctoral student described her evolvement. "In my twenties I could do anything - nothing could stop me. I felt invincible. Now I'm more aware of problems." As she visualized the future she also expressed a wish "to develop as an individual - to be a good person . . . when you die what else do you leave other than the memories of how you treated other human beings."

Those who were mothers spoke about raising their children. One respondent stated: "I'm not raising my daughter to be a Hispanic or an Anglo woman I'm just raising her to be a woman. We have much more in common than we realize just as women." In a similar vein another respondent said, "curiously I've spent a lot more time changing the scene for women more by intent than I have for changing the scene for Hispanics." Many of them spoke about "fuller development of their being and a movement toward self-actualization." Gloria said, "Kind of like out of those humblest of roots could come somebody who is really going to move this world and I feel that's real special and that it's no accident because I can be a model for other women, for other Hispanics, to let them see that this is who you are. This is who you can be."

DISCUSSION

The women in this study seem to feel good and fulfilled about being women today. The majority of these women are going through or have completed a period of reevaluation. The outcome of this evaluation is a greater self-awareness of what they want and will do with the rest of their lives. Many of the strengths they possess are a result of their rich cultural heritage. It should also be pointed out that most of them now feel free to reject the parts of their culture that kept them from becoming more fulfilled people.

For the most part the women in this study mourned the loss of the Spanish language in their generation. Language is considered an integral part of a culture. It operates as a vehicle for the expression of cultural ideas. That is a part of their culture that many of them never experienced. It will be interesting to see if the next generation is exposed in depth to the Spanish language.

The major conflict area for the majority of the women centered around job and family responsibilities. This is in line with other studies dealing with development of women (Caffarella, 1985). It would be interesting to look at younger Hispanic women to see if this conflict area still exists.

The women in this study seemed to indicate that their primary focus in life was on others: family, children, roommates and spouses. While this has some genesis in their culture it also agrees with previous research on the development of women (Gilligan, 1982). The older women in the study did indicate starting to place greater emphasis on themselves, looking at the possibilities of what they can do and what they can become.

Principal implications from this study center around theory building in the area of adult development, specifically of adult women. Questions that emerged were: 1) How do the concerns of this group of Hispanic women at midlife compare with other groups of women at midlife? It seems from this study that many of their concerns are the same. 2) It appears that the extended family holds a great deal of importance in the life of the Hispanic woman. Are the affiliations and attachments that these women experience equal or comparable to those reported by other groups of women? and 3) Are other female ethnic groups seeing a change toward more openness and acceptance of individual differences among women, as well as acceptance of a variety of lifestyles that will ultimately lead to self-fulfillment?

REFERENCES

Alcalay, R. (1984) Hispanic Women in the U.S.: Family and Work Relations, Migration Today 12 (3), 13-20.

Caffarella, R. and Freeman, S. (1985) Women in their thirties: the in-between generation. AERC Proceedings, 62-68.

Gilligan, C. (1985) In a difference voice. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Hayghe, H. (1983) Married Couples: Work and Income Patterns, Monthly Labor Review, 106 (12), 26-29.

Sanchez, R. & Cruz, R.M. (Eds.) (1977) Essays on la mujer Los Angeles: Univ. of California, Chicano Studies Center Publications.

An Innovative Staff Development Program at the University of San Carlos, Guatemala: The Master's in University Teaching

S. Gregory Bowes, Professor, Higher and Adult Education
University of New Mexico

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine faculty members's perceptions about their professional outcomes through participation as students in the Master's in University Teaching Program.

INTRODUCTION

The University of San Carlos, Guatemala, initiated in 1984 an innovative graduate program for its faculty members, the Master's in University Teaching. Faculty from all ten colleges participate in this program which aims toward 1) improving knowledge and skills in university teaching, 2) fostering intercollege cooperation, and 3) upgrading the overall quality of instruction across the campus. During the first year about 75 faculty participated by taking at least one course. Currently, there are over 400 faculty who have participated, over 300 are active enrollees, approximately 40 have finished course work and five have graduated. These faculty have participated while maintaining their regular university assignments.

METHODOLOGY

The method employed in this study was a combination qualitative/quantitative approach. The initial information about program outcomes was obtained by reading internal institutional documents from 1984-87 and an external evaluation completed after the first two years of program operation (Bowes, 1986). Data from this document review came from administrators and students in the program and helped organize for the next stage in the research process.

The researcher conducted two focus group sessions with 10-12 faculty from a cross section of colleges in November 1987. The focus group is frequently used in the business sector and is an effective marketing research method for collecting information from a small group of people who come together to discuss a given topic with the leadership of a moderator (Davidson, 1975). As a result of these two group sessions, a structure was framed for the final two stages of data collection: a questionnaire and individual interviews. This structure included subsequent investigation into four major outcome areas which participants identified:

1) Improved curriculum design
2) Improved/enhanced teaching skills

3) Development of intercollege cooperation
4) Development of corollary professional skills

An instrument was developed for distribution to 39 faculty who were identified by the Program Coordinator as having finished at least 9 of the program's 10 required courses (in fact, five had graduated and another five had begun work on their theses). It was believed that information obtained from this group of participants would provide the single most meaningful insights into the total program in that they had been involved since the inception of the program.

Four associates of the researcher distributed questionnaires with an explanatory cover letter requesting participation in person to the 39 subjects in early March 1988. Thirty-one faculty returned their questionnaires in a sealed envelope to the researcher with the assistance of courier mail. Thirty responses were usable; one was not completed and contained a protest regarding the program's unresponsiveness to faculty at private universities.

In April 1988, the final step in data collection was undertaken--the completion of four in-depth interviews with faculty on-site in Guatemala.

RESULTS

The following will describe results of the data collection from both qualitative and quantitative dimensions. In all cases the results relate to the four major areas of inquiry which developed from document review and the two focus groups.

Area I--Curriculum

Participants felt that they obtained theoretical/methodological comprehension about the design and planning of curriculum and the entire educative process. These faculty have passed from a curricular conception centered at the institutional level to one with a more pronounced focus on the needs, interests and vexations of their students, which signifies a radical change in their curricular perception. Finally, the beginning of an integration between students and faculty was noted as it relates to the development of curriculum and its subsequent manifestation in the university world.

Area II--Teaching

Participants felt that in the theoretical/conceptual area they had significantly improved their knowledge of the psychological/pedagogical dimensions of their students. This had, therefore, enabled future application of techniques of motivation and work with group dynamics. From an individual perspective, these faculty expressed an enhanced position of leadership in the classroom and an improved feeling of power. They also noted improved skills in using evaluation for personal and professional development. Finally, in relation to methodological outcomes, there was extensive documentation of more and better use of multimedia instruction, as additional ways to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of their classoom instruction.

Area III--Intercollege Cooperation

Faculty noted that many informal, cooperative and collaborative relationships had been developed as outgrowths of the Master's Program. These activities actually took place as a result of course or program requirements and served to enrich interpersonal relationships. Many participants expressed concern that this cooperative model had not been nurtured at the level of the respective colleges or the university. Only in two cases were examples provided which documented cooperation within a certain college or between two colleges--apart from the normal interactions for course requirements. Many faculty felt that the success of this cooperation would hinge in part on the support given it by program administrators and staff.

Area IV--Corollary Skills

Findings indicated that the Master's in University Teaching contributed to the professional reaffirmation of the individual faculty member. Participation enhanced the confidence levels of these faculty, their self-perception, their feeling of security and success and their total professional satisfaction. They noted the development of the "faculty as leader" dimension of their work and the reinforcing elements in their technical/pedagogical responsibilities. The Master's Program was cited as an important element in the revitalization of their nationalistic interests.

CONCLUSION/DISCUSSION

Based upon data collected in this study, one can note that goals of the Master's in University Teaching at the University of San Carlos in Guatemala are being met. A common thread that ran throughout the phases of data collection was the feeling by a vast majority of participants that there now exists an accentuated interest in utilizing research as a methodology for the improvement of the teaching/learning process. Faculty beliefs reflected a more scientific attitude based upon their participation in the Master's Program. This, in turn, they believe will be transferred to their daily work with students.

This innovative approach to staff development offers benefits to the institution, its students and participating faculty members. It represents a unique attempt to involve faculty from diverse academic disciplines in professional development which improves their knowledge base and teaching skills. It is a model that other universities should examine for application to their specific needs and faculty expertise.

Note: This study was conducted entirely in Spanish--focus groups, document review, questionnaire implementation, and interviews. At certain times this report contains English usage which is not common. This was done to ensure the best possible translation from participants's actual comments. The researcher uses Spanish as a second language.

REFERENCES

Bowes, S. G., "Proceso de Evaluacion de la Maestria en Docencia Universitaria en la Universidad de San Carlos de Guatemala." United States Information Agency, Guatemala, July 1986, 43 pp.

Davidson, T. L. (1975). "When...if ever...are focused groups a valid research tool." In E. M. Mazze (ed.), Combined Proceedings, American Marketing Association Conference, Series No. 37.

Epistemological Vandalism: Psychology in the Study of Adult Education

Barry P. Bright

Hull University

Introduction

The purpose of the present paper is to elaborate the claim that the study of adult education commits epistemological vandalism with respect to the knowledge it uses from psychology. Although only focussing upon one such discipline, the same argument, in slightly different forms and details, may also hold in its epistemological relationship to all of its source disciplines. In referring to "source disciplines", the conventional epistemological structure of vertically separate and independent disciplines as "forms" of knowledge with derived, inter-disciplinary and contingent "fields" residing below them, is assumed (e.g. Hirst, 1974). Within this approach, the study of adult education is regarded as occupying the status of a "field" of knowledge which is dependent upon the body of knowledge residing at the higher "forms" of knowledge level i.e. the major disciplines (Bright, 1985). Although this epistemological structure is assumed for the purpose of the paper it is recognised that it does not totally characterise the study of adult education and that given this relationship, the study of adult education does have several options available to it concerning the framework within which this "source" knowledge is located and used (Bright, 1988). Indeed, it can be argued that adult education commits another type of epistemological vandalism with respect to itself by ignoring the nature of these relative options.

The paper will proceed via a brief discussion of the meaning of "vandalism", after which several types of episteomological problems currently present in adult education will be referred to.

Meaning of Vandalism

Deviancy, defacement of public property and deliberate intention are identified as major components within the general meaning of vandalism. Deviancy refers to a departure from, or transgression of, accepted norms or behaviors. The study of adult education can be regarded as deviant, not because it is different from its source disciplines, which is implicit within the conventional episteomological structure, but rather because it attempts to over-identify with those source disciplines and does not, at a formal level, recognise its own difference from those disciplines. It can be regarded as deviant because it does not address the nature of its own activity and the need for its own identity in terms which recognise its dependency upon them. In failing to do this it conseqently over emphasises but vandalises source discipline knowledge in a manner which prevents awareness of this vandalism.

The defacement of public property notion within the concept of vandalism refers to the public knowledge residing in source disciplines, which adult education defaces and damages. Also this notion can be applied to the failure of adult education to delineate its content and activity relative to source discipline knowledge and activity.

The last component of vandalism, i,e, deliberate intention on the part of the vandalising agent, does not apply to adult education, since it would not appear to be aware of the epistemological vandalism it is causing to source discipline knowledge and its own definition. Indeed, it would be a healthy sign of an emerging epistemological identity if adult education deliberately commissioned this vandalism within a justificatory and logically structured system of criticism and concepts.

Epistemological Problems in the Psychology - Adult Education Relationship

It is suggested that there are three major epistemological issues within this relationship. These relate to the origin of knowledge currently being used within adult education, the selection of knowledge content within curricula in adult education, and the status of this derived knowledge at the hands of adult education.

a) Origin Issue

It is suggested that this issue does not refer merely to a recognition of the epistemological dependency of adult education upon psychology, but, rather, the very high degree of such dependency. With obvious exceptions (e.g. Child Development, Juvenile Psychiatry), most of the knowledge residing within psychology is predicated upon the assumption of an adult population and experience. Similarly, an emphasis upon learning or education invokes a multitude of psychological concepts (e.g. personality, motivation, development, cognition, memory, perception, learning theories, intelligence etc.). In addition, the frequent claim that adult education should be re-interpreted to mean the education of adults and its geometric widening of the domain of study, also further entails a multitude of psychological factors, dimensions and concepts. The large degree of epistemological overlap is also evident in the large number of psychologists who have contributed to adult education. Piaget, for example, although recognised as a child development theorist, also has important applications in adulthood since the final stage of his theory can be regarded as specifying adult cognitive processes and reasoning. Similarly, Riegel's theory of dialectical operations in adulthood, Labouvie-Vief's theory of adaptive dimensions in adulthood, Cattell's theory of fluid and crystallised intelligence, Roger's and Maslow's theories within Humanistic Psychology and the embodiment of these within Andragogy, all suggest the strong contribution of psychology to adult education. Finally, the emergence of Life-Span Developmental Psychology (Baltes et al, 1980) further illustrates the erosion of the myth that adult education is the only academic activity concerned with adults.

b) Selection Issue

Given the large degree of epistemological overlap between adult education and psychology, the next problem is that of the manner of selecting appropriate material from the large amount of source knowledge available. It is suggested that adult education at a group, professional level does not specify or attempt to specify the nature of its content relative to source discipline knowledge. The usual approach is to renage on this responsibility by delegating it to subject specialists or students which amounts to an informal and implicit, rather than explicit, process. This also amounts to a failure of adult education as a professional, academic and intellectual activity and concern, to delineate, or even recognise, the detailed nature of its epistemological relationship to source disciplines. Selection obviously occurs, but this is normally by the subject specialists whom adult education (at least in the UK) emphasises as such i.e. "specialists". However, it is suggested that adult education renders its "subject specialists" into generalists who are out of touch with their first discipline and who may not be fully conversant with current conceptual developments within that discipline. This means that the incidence of selection (subject specialist) is relatively uninformed or outdated, and is faced with both the problematical nature of a large epistemological overlap between adult education and its source disciplines, and the pressure within adult education to develop a distinct epistemological identity, which adult education at a group level refuses to contribute towards.

Surrendering the curriculum to student choice (e.g. choice of modular options, total choice of content in independent study/ learning contracts) is more problematic since it denotes a failure to demonstrate epistemological awareness and a relatively clear understanding of the content of adult education. If an educational facilitator is truly "non-directive" he/she is merely functioning as a bibliography, a function which can be more adequately fulfilled by a computer. If he/she is not functioning as a bibliography, he/she is not "non-directive" and is drawing upon some body of knowledge as an interpretive framework. If students are allowed to choose modular options, adult education is being declared incomplete and piecemeal, nothwithstanding the view that at higher levels of advanced study some degree of specialisation is necessary. Indeed, it is suggested that this higher level of advanced study is hardly ever reached and that student selection of content occurs at a basic and introductory level. Conversely, the criteria for "advanced level" study can be regarded as very low, obscure or simply ignored.

c) Status Issue

Within this issue several more specific problems may be identified in terms of the treatment that psychological knowledge receives at the hands of adult education. The first problem is the high level of abbreviation and lack of detail of psychological knowledge in both teaching and research. Thus textbooks and articles tend to represent an "epistemologicsl cafeteria" approach with major psychological concepts given inadequate and compartmentalised coverage. Learning theories, for example, are described in a single sentence (e.g. Mackie 1981), or a few pages (Squires, 1982; Okum and Dubin, 1973), with little or no detail concerning their theoretical and philosophical assumptions and underpinnings. Similarly, topics such as personality, motivation, cognition etc. are often referred to with inadequate reference to the theoretical complexity and variety of perspectives that exist within psychology and the existence of important philosophical and empirical criticisms and objections to these. Also courses in say "The Psychology of Adult Learning and Development", typically involve a brief and hurried excursion through a collage of theories and perspectives. It is suggested that the problem of abbreviation really amounts to a selection issue in terms of level rather than content. Most teaching and research involving psychological knowledge in adult education is at an "introductory" level, but this may conflict with the post-graduate level (in the UK) that the study of adult education enjoys. Indeed, this prompts the question of what is an acceptable level of academic study within the postgraduate study of adult education?

A second problem concerns "bad eclecticism" in which theoretical perspectives which have fundamentally different philosophical assumptions are merged in the name of pragmatism. Thus, behaviorist and cognitive principles of learning are often regarded as if they co-exist as practical choices, yet, theoretically they are mutually exclusive. In addition, there would appear to be no legitimising rationale by which they can be arranged in this "cook-book" manner, pragmatism being assumed to be the justification.

The third problem refers to that of false dichotomies. Rather than the eclectic approach to psychological knowledge, this problem tends to occur in more specialised use of specific psychological theories. The best example is that of Andragogy and its obvious dependence upon Humanistic Psychology. It is suggested that Knowles's criteria for delineating the characteristics of adult learners (Knowles, 1984) represents the passive-active dimension with regard to adults and children and that this is approximately twenty years out of date with respect to current and more inclusive perspectives within developmental psychology (e.g. Lerner, 1976, 1978; Anastasi, 1958; Sameroff, 1975; Schaffer, 1976; Bell, 1968; Danziger,1978; Clarke and Clarke, 1977). The tendency to extend theoretical categories which contradict existing psychological knowledge in the name of a distinctive "adult" epistemology, is syptomatic of the absence of, and consequent need for, professional identity. Precisely the same criticism can be levelled at Allman's (Allman, 1983) adoption of the passive-active dimension. Also, such tendencies lead to other theoretical errors. For example, Riegel's theory of dialectical operations (Riegel, 1976, 1979), which is consistent with the andragogical approach, is often referred to as specifying dialectical operations in adulthood, however, this is incorrect, since Riegel suggests that this type of logical thinking is primary and exists at birth. It is supressed as a result of formal schooling and its formal logic orientation, but reappears in adulthood.

Conclusion

It is not being suggested that psychological knowledge is veridicial, but if such knowledge represents the academic and theoretical account of adult psychological experience, and if adult education is defined as an academic, theoretical activity with a high degree of epistemological overlap with psychology, then adult education, as a responsible and professional body of academics, can be expected to demonstrate both a recognition of the extent, and an authentic representation of the nature and details, of that knowledge. Although anectdotal, the author, as a former psychologist, shudders at most of the adult education literature and teaching which invokes psychological content. Indeed, the problems this paper has attempted to draw attention to impinges directly upon the success of the paper in achieving its objectives, since it too, may represent poor academic status precisely because of the problems alluded to.

Finally, it must be noted that this is to view adult education's epistemolgoical orientation from the prespective of the intrinsic disciplines. It is possible to adopt a "radical" perspective which challenges conventional epistemology at a fundamental level. Other options are also available which, whilst recognising the epistemological dependence of adult education in formal theory terms, also permits the delineation of adult education as a practical rather than totally theoretical activity. This involves regarding adult education as being primarily concerned with informal, practitioner-based theory to which formal theory may be related. This approach must not be confused with Andragogy which can, despite all of its claims to be pragmatic and practical, be regarded as a self-fulfilling theory-led approach within which practical situations are interpreted. A truly practical and informal theory approach allows the practice and theory it utilises to speak to formal theory rather than the reverse.

References

Allman, P. "Toward a Developmental Theory of Andragogy", 1983, University of Nottingham, Department of Adult Education.

Anastasi, A. "Heredity, environment and the question how?", Psychological Review, 1958, vol.65, pp. 197-208.

Baltes, P.B., Reeses, H.W. and Lipsitt, L.P. "Life Span Developmental Psychology", Annual Review of Psychology, 1980, vol. 31, pp. 65-110.

Bell, R.Q. "A reinterpretation of the direction of effects in studies of socialisation", Psychological Review, 1968, vol. 75,pp. 81-95.

Bright, B.P. "The Content-Method Relationship in the Study of Adult Education", Studies in the Education of Adults, 1985, vol.17, no.2, pp. 168-183.

Bright, B.P. "Adult Development, Learning and Teaching", Newland Paper Number Twelve, 1986, Hull University, School of Adult and Continuing Education.

Bright, B.P. (Ed) "Theory and Practice in the Study of Adult Education", Croom Helm, 1988 (Forhtcoming).

R.B.Cattell, "Theory of Fluid and Crystallised Intelligence: A Critical Experiment", Journal of Educational Psychology, 1963, vol.54, pp.1-22.

Dubin, S. and Okum, M. "Implications of Learning Theories for Adult Instruction", Adult Education (USA), 1973, vol.24, no.1, pp. 3-19.

Hirst, P. "Knowledge and the Curriculum", Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1974.

Knowles, M. "The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species", 1984, Gulf (3rd. Edition).

G. Labouvie-Vief, "Adaptive Dimensions of Adult Cognition", in N.Datan and N.Lohman (Eds), Transitions of Ageing, Academic Press, 1980.

Lerner, R.M. "Concepts and Theories of Human Development",1976, Addison Wesley.

Lerner, R.M. "Nature, nurture and dynamic interactionism", Human Development, 1978, vol. 21, pp. 1-20.

Mackie, K. "The Application of Learning Theory to Adult Teaching", in P.Allman and K.Mackie (Eds), Adults: Psychological and Educational Perspectives, 1981, Nottingham University, Department of Adult Education.

Riegel, K.F. "Foundations of Dialectical Psychology", Academic Press, 1979.

Riegel, K.F. "The Dialectics of Human Development", American Psychologist, 1976, vol.31, pp. 689-700.

Sameroff, A.J. "Early influences: fact or fantasy?", Merrill Palmer Quarterly, 1975, vol. 21, no. 4, pp. 267-294.

Schaffer, H.R. "The Growth of Sociability", 1976, Penguin Books.

The Politics of Professionalism: An Analysis of Competing Conceptions of Continuing Professional Education

Ronald M. Cervero
The University of Georgia

Abstract: Contemporary British and North American societies are characterized by a diversity of viewpoints regarding professional practice and the proper place of professions in society. This paper describes and analyzes the functionalist, conflict, and critical viewpoints and their implications for the goals of continuing professional education.

The Social Context of Continuing Professional Education

A number of viewpoints exist on the proper role of the professions in society. Some people remain nearly entirely positive in the evaluation of the professions and see no need to change this relationship in any fundamental way. Others are nearly totally negative and imply, if not state directly, that we would all be better off if the professions would disappear. Many, perhaps most, people find themselves torn between these two perspectives, realizing that the professions will probably always exist but seeing a need for a fundamental redirection of their role in society. As members of society, continuing educators also represent these diverse viewpoints about the professions and society. These viewpoints provide a context for thinking about the goals of continuing professional education. Although these viewpoints profoundly affect their work, continuing educators too often do not acknowledge that their practice is based on a particular conception of the role of professions in society. Without this understanding, educators are left without an important tool for making decisions in their daily practice and ultimately for improving their practice.

The various viewpoints about the relationship between the professions and society may be distilled into three fundamentally different conceptions. The **functionalist** viewpoint has deep roots in social theory and practice and has the greatest number of adherents in continuing professional education today. This viewpoint is generally positive about the place of professions in society in contrast to the **conflict** viewpoint, which is essentially negative. The **critical** viewpoint is the most recent to have crystallized and shares with the conflict viewpoint a recognition of the problems inherent in professional practice. However, rather than seeking to eliminate the professions, its adherents wish to restructure the professions in such a way as to minimize their limitations.

Although this analytical framework cannot describe all viewpoints in their full richness and complexity, it is expected that continuing educators are willing to accept this limitation so that the implications for educational practice can be brought into sharper focus. Because these viewpoints involve fundamental values and assumptions about the characteristics of a good society and the best means to achieve such a society, it is unreasonable to expect that consensus among continuing educators is possible or even desirable. Nevertheless, a critical analysis of their work with respect to these viewpoints is a necessary element of effective practice. An extended version of this paper is found in the author's book on continuing professional education (Cervero, in press).

The Functionalist Viewpoint

Functionalism has been the dominant viewpoint in North American social science for the past several decades. As such, it should not be surprising that its assumptions and tenets have formed the underpinnings for most people's understandings of the relationship between the professions and the larger society. The functionalist approach posits that the professions are service- or community oriented occupations applying a systematic body of knowledge to problems that are highly relevant to the central values of society. This approach stresses the **functional** value of professional activity for the maintenance of an orderly society.

Professional Practice. The key concept in the functionalist viewpoint is **expertise.** As described by Schon (1983, p. 21): "...professional activity consists in instrumental problem solving made rigorous by the application of scientific theory and technique." The two key assumptions are that practice problems are well-formed and unambiguous and that these problems are solved by the application of scientific knowledge. Thus, professionals are seen as possessing a high degree of specialized expertise to solve well-defined practice problems. The need for well-defined practice problems is crucial because as Moore says: "If every problem were in all respects unique, solutions would be at best accidental, and therefore have nothing to do with expert knowledge. What we are suggesting, on the contrary, is that there are sufficient uniformities in problems and in devices for solving them ... professionals... apply very general principles, **standardized** knowledge, to concrete problems..." (1970, p. 56).

Professions and Society. A functionalist view of society is characterized by consensus, order, and equilibrium. It is assumed that all groups and interests in society share a set of common values. These values form the basis for a consensus about the ends of professional practice. Existing social structures and institutions must be maintained or changed gradually so as to keep society in equilibrium, thus producing an orderly progression towards a better society. The professions are crucial because they apply their knowledge with an altruistic orientation, rather than in their own self-interest. By being guardians of the central values and institutions of society, there is a compelling logic for expanding the extent of professionalism in society. Barber (1963, p. 686) says: "...the community orientation characteristic of professional behavior are indispensable in out society as we know it and as we want it to be. Indeed, our kind of society can now maintain it fundamental character only by enlarging the scope for professional behavior." Barber's words also illustrate a final important characteristic of the functionalist viewpoint, a strong belief in the goodness of society as it is currently constituted.

Educational Implications. With the ends of professional practice being fixed and unambiguous, continuing education performs the instrumental function of helping professionals provide higher quality service to clients by improving their knowledge, competence, or performance. Continuing education thus becomes a technical process (LeBreton and others, 1979, p. 8): "Increasingly, one needs a planned approach to professional development if one's professional competence is to be maintained or enlarged. Continuing education specialists play a major facilitating role in this endeavor. They may assist in the determination of developmental needs of clients, design programs in view of expressed needs, and arrange for their implementation." In this viewpoint, continuing educators: "...become...colleagues of all who work to further the power and the responsibility of the vocation" (Houle, 1980, p.. 31).

The Conflict Viewpoint

Until the 1960's the professions were understood almost exclusively in a functionalist context. Then, a wide range of critiques began to appear that coalesced into a viewpoint that challenged functionalist understandings. In this view professions are not inherently different from other occupations except for the fact that they have secured a monopoly for their services in the marketplace, thereby achieving a comparatively great amount of income and status for their members. This viewpoint asserts that professions are in **conflict** with other groups in society for power, status, and money. They use knowledge, skills, and an altruistic orientation as a form of ideology in their quest for these social rewards. Thus, professionalism is seen as an ideology for controlling an occupation rather than an ideal end-state toward which all occupations should aspire for the betterment of society.

Professional Practice. The key concept in the conflict viewpoint is **power**. Professions' importance in society comes not from their expertise but rather from their "power to prescribe" (Illich, 1977, p. 17). By being able to define their clients' problems and to prescribe solutions, professionals can create needs for their services. This viewpoint seeks to explode the mystique of professional expertise as composed of special knowledge and skills. When this expertise is critically analyzed, it dissolves: "...into empty claims. The professions are vehicles for the preemption of socially legitimate knowledge in the interest of social control" (Schon, 1983, p. 289).

Professions and Society. Where the functionalist approach sees consensus about the proper ends of society, this second viewpoint assumes there is conflict among various groups in society. Where the functionalist viewpoint stresses the concept of a fluid society open to individual social mobility, the conflict viewpoint sees a system characterized by structured social inequality where different groups are in conflict over a limited amount of social and economic rewards. Professionalization has primarily an economic function in society in that it is a means to maintain this system of social inequality. Because the backbone of inequality in contemporary capitalist societies is the occupational hierarchy, professionalization is a powerful means to move up this hierarchy. The process of professionalization is where: "...producers of special services sought to constitute and control a market for their expertise. Because marketable expertise is a crucial element in the structure of modern inequality, professionalization appears **also** as a collective assertion of special social status..." (Larson, 1977, p. xvi).

Educational Implications. The competence of professionals is not the problem to which educational solutions must be addressed. Rather, the problem lies in the oppressive system of which professionals are a part. Until the structural conditions that produce professional power are weakened, professionals will maintain their hierarchical relationships with clients. They will continue to be reinforced by their initial training, the institutions in which they work, and even the clients themselves. There are small number of educators in many professions that work collectively to change the fundamental relationship between their profession and society. For example, there are physicians who work to make the provision of health care more equitable and there are teachers who seek top change the role that schools play in the reproduction of existing social relations.

The Critical Viewpoint

In the past ten years another viewpoint has crystallized in reaction to the functionalist and conflict viewpoints. Where functionalism sees well-defined problems, this new viewpoint assumes that professionals construct the problem from the situation. Where the conflict viewpoint believes each profession possesses a monolithic value orientation so as to secure the largest possible market share, this new viewpoint provides evidence for conflicting value orientations among members of a profession. Because professionals are always making choices about what problems to solve as well as how to solve them, this approach stresses the need for professionals to be **critically** aware of these choices and their implications.

Professional Practice. The key concept in the critical viewpoint is **dialectic.** This can be contrasted with the linear application of expertise in the functional viewpoint and the one-way domination of clients by professionals in the conflict approach. Professionals are in transaction or interaction with situations of practice. The ends and means of practice are interconnected like a web. This stands in contrast to the separations and consequent linear relationships between knowing and doing, professional and client, and means and ends implicit in the other two viewpoints. This linear view of professional practice is challenged on two major counts: the notion of a fixed and unambiguous problem and the basis of professional knowledge. In their practice, professionals must construct problems from ambiguous situations. Thus, problem-setting rather than problem-solving is the key to practice. Professionals are in a dialectical relationship with situations characterized by uniqueness, uncertainty, and value conflict. Their knowledge is in the form of: "...a **repertoire** of examples, images, understandings, and actions" (Schon, 1983, p. 138). When a professional is trying to make sense of a situation, she sees it as something already present in her repertoire.

Professions and Society. Both the conflict and the functionalist approaches understand professions as homogeneous communities with shared sets of values working toward common ends. Those working out of a conflict framework believe that members of a professional community band together in order to constitute and control a market for their services. Those working out of a functionalist framework believe that professional groups share a common set of knowledge and code of ethics with the purpose of providing high quality service to people and working toward the betterment of society. In contrast, the critical viewpoint sees heterogeneity within the profession. Thus, individuals hold a variety of identities and have different if not conflicting values regarding the ends of practice. As a result, we must speak of the places not the place of professions in society. Professions are: "...loose amalgamations of segments pursuing different objectives in different manners and more or less held together under a common name at a particular period in history" (Bucher and Strauss, 1961, p. 326). This approach shifts attention away from what professionals have in common such as education, status, and knowledge to how they use these common characteristics for different social purposes.

Educational Implications. The critical viewpoint argues for the abandonment of the idea that there is consensus regarding professional quality. In all professions there are differing, if not conflicting, definitions of quality. As a result, continuing educators are constantly faced with the problem of choosing among differing definitions of professional quality. Every educational program is a statement of the need for a particular form of technical knowledge **and** a statement about the proper ends of professional practice. The important educational decisions in the critical approach are who will decide on the content of the program and on the basis of what criteria.

Necessity for the Critical Viewpoint

The functionalist approach emphasizes the need to be skilled at the technical aspects of the educational process. This is obviously important. However, these technical skills are necessary but not sufficient for effective practice in continuing education. Similarly, the conflict viewpoint raises important questions about the ends of professional practice and the role of professions in society. Yet, here the educational process itself is relegated to a secondary status. Instead, most of the attention is paid to the "big picture" and the ultimate outcome of that process, which is the diminution of professional power. Thus, both viewpoints offer an incomplete approach to effective practice. The critical viewpoint offers a comprehensive basis for educational practice because it recognizes the need to deal with the means and the ends of the education process. This viewpoint suggests that continuing educators must understand the ethical and political as well as the technical dimensions of their work. Effective practice requires that educators understand the ends of their work and the best means to reach those ends. They must critically examine these means and ends on a continual basis in order to better understand their role and communicate it to the professionals with whom they work and, ultimately, to society at large.

References

Barber, B. (1963). Some problems in the sociology of the professions. *Daedalus, 92*, 669-688.

Bucher, R., and Strauss, A. (1961). Professions in process. *American Journal of Sociology, 66*, 325-334.

Cervero, R. M. (in press). *Effective practice in continuing professional education.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Houle, C. O. (1980). *Continuing learning in the professions.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Illich, I. (1977). *Disabling professions.* London: Martin Boyers.

Larson, M. S. (1977). *The Rise of professionalism*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

LeBreton, P. P., and others (Eds.). (1979). *The evaluation of continuing education for professionals: A systems view.* Seattle: University of Washington.

Moore, W. E. (1970). *The professions: Roles and rules*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Schon, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner.* New York: Basic Books.

RELATIONAL ASPECTS OF THE EDUCATION OF OLDER ADULTS

Adèle Chené, Université de Montréal

Abstract: This study attempts to understand what is at stake in the desire of the adult educator to educate olderadults as well as in the desire of older adults for education.

The present research originated from an observation during a study on educational practice involving older adults. Although the contexts investigated in that study varied, it was striking that both adult educators and older adults were highly satisfied with their educational experience. One seventy-five year old person even said that she had started to live with the courses she had taken; it was also reported that older adults wished to defer the end of the educational activity or continue to pursue it informally. The unanimously positive reactions lead to a suspicion that there might be a complicity between adult educators and older adults in the setting of educational activities which might not be neutral in regard to aging itself and which insures complete satisfaction of both parties. The educational relationship has been analyzed in the traditional context of the school. For instance, Filloux (1986) has hypothesized that the function of teaching is essentially and immediately invested with relational project. Although there is an awareness of their implications in adult education, affective aspects of educational relationships have not been focused on as such, except in the context of training analysis groups. As far as educational relationships between adult educators and older adults are concerned, no reference from ERIC or other sources has been found.

Since it was in agreement with field observation, Filloux's statement was transposed in the context of older adult education. Thus, the premiss on which the present is that older adult education is essentially and immediately invested with a relational project. The research question can be stated as follows: What does education mean, in relation to its relational project, to older adults involved in educational activities designed for them and to adult educators working with them? The research is exploratory. Theoretical elements and empirical data are presented in this paper.

Theoretical context: To understand the affective aspects of the educational relationship with older adults, elements were drawn from three theoretical areas thought to be relevant: psychoanalysis, psychology of the self, and education.

For psychoanalysis, aging is the critical moment when the libido starts wondering if it is worth investing in a new object (Assoun, 1983). This questioning of the libido may be better understood in reference to either fixation, pulsional conflict or mourning. Fixation is associated with the fear of losing the object of love and not being able to find an adequate substitute. It develops into a resistance to anything new and the desire for eternity related to primary narcissism takes precedence over the pleasure of love. The double question "Am I loved; can I love" is intensified for the old person because the libido objectifies its relationship with objects.

To understand what is at stake in the relationship with the object, Assoun refers to the pulsional conflict. During maturity, one has been distracted from the quest of primary narcissism, but aging reactivates dependence. The old person will relate to another less because of desire than for the survival of the self.

Assoun interprets the narcissistic withdrawal of aging in terms of the necessary labour of mourning which the self accomplished in relation to the loss of the self. Older people are confronted with loss; they have discovered the limits of their love objects and, thus of their own self. The fear of losing again what is loved refers the self to a deeper fear of having no desire or not being able to experience pleasure. Paradoxically, subjects who have become old turn to the self as in primary narcissism and are confronted with the limits of their own desire.

According to Assoun, narcissistic reorganisation is central to aging.

The psychology of the self has developed an understanding of aging and of the dynamics of relatedness in reference to narcissism. According to Meissner (1976), the basic problem of the aging person is the loss of the self. When one's resources are being depleted and lost, there may result an imbalance in the self. Meissner argues that if the elderly are able to compensate for the losses and invest in new objects, they may recover the sense of their value. Consequently, the narcissistic equilibrium of older people depends on their capacity of restitution and, more radically, on their capacity to reinvest in the self.

Lazarus (1980) has observed that it is possible to identify in older people the forms of the self and their transformations. He describes three types of older people: those whose self is integrated, aging narcissistic people and people who suffer from narcissistic troubles. Few applications are drawn for the therapeutic relationship.

Transposed in the educational setting involving older adults, the psychology of the self suggests that the educational projects may have a restoring function for certain participants; that the relationship itself may have a restoring or a debilitating effect, depending on the affective needs of the participants and the educator; and that the conscious or unconscious attitude of the adult educator regarding approbation or existential questions like aging and death play a role in the interaction with older adults.

Scholars in education have interpreted the educational project as a quest to restore the self. Knowledge or skills add to the self and give power. Education has a regulating function, it allows one to go beyond oneself, where limits are felt, and to reach an ideal of the self (Kaës & al., 1979). At the affective level, the educational quest, when addressed to another person in the educational relationship, is interpreted as a demand to know oneself, to master oneself and the world, as a demand for love and restoration (Kaës, in Kaës & al., 1973). It follows that a refusal on the part of the educator may be felt as destructive.

Filloux (1986) has shown that in answering the educational need, educators are paradoxically in a position of need themselves. Independent of the desire for education, there is a desire to educate. If educators are unconscious of the interplay between giving and seduction, they may be caught in the dynamics of transference and countertransference; thriving on being loved, they will be distracted from the educational quest of the learner. If they are non conscious of the symbolic function of knowledge as nourishment for the primary self, they may also be caught with the learner in the illusion of eternal youth. Postic (1979) mentions the difficulty for teachers to accept getting old.

Educational relationships serve as a relay to the appropriation of knowledge or skills (Kaës, 1973; Postic, 1979; Terrier & Bigeault, 1975). To answer the quest for learning, the educator has to retire as an object of love.

In adult education, the relationships tend to be symmetrical; they are established on the basis of "functional complementarity" (Postic,1979:142). They also tend to be idealized in the sharing of learning.
Transposed in the context of older adult education, the quest to restore the self which is associated with the educational project is confronted with the ability of self-restitution of older people and the demands of the primary self. The educational project may also be seen as a guarantee that aging is kept at bay, to the satisfaction of everybody.

Empirical data: To answer the research question, Filloux's(1986) design was used. The open interview was chosen as the most appropriate technique to collect the data and the question was transposed from Filloux's as follows: What does education represent to you? Sub-questions were asked, as the subjects developed their own discourse.

Fifteen subjects voluntarily participated in three series of interviews conducted in three different educational contexts: the first one was an urban community organisation and the topic of the course was aging and personal growth;the second one was a semi-rural regional high school where physical education classes attracted older people; the third one was an urban community college which offered an academic curriculum to older people. For each series of interviews, four older adults were paired with their teacher or animator. All subjects were women, except for one teacher and one learner; with the exception of four, the learners were all over sixty years old; one educator was over fifty, and the other two in their forties. The interviews lasted between thirty and forty minutes, they were taped and transcribed.

Data analysis: Categories were generated in the course of data analysis and revised after each series of interviews. Two main categories account for all statements of both older adults and adult educators: learning and being with.

Older adults: Older adults express great enthusiasm toward learning. They are aware of their inner desire to learn, and of the possibility to realize an ideal, now that they can afford the time: "it is a real pleasure"; "we come to learn". Learning is directed toward the self, it provides ways to control one's life, it helps one to stay active and well integrated in society: "adult education is being aware of everything today; young people improve their knowledge, we ought to keep the pace". When a choice of course content is possible, older people will try to respond to immediate needs (health, law), or to improve acquired knowledge and skills. At college level, they appreciate knowing themselves better, to be able to learn better. Learning has positive effects; it increase or reactivates abilities, it guards against depressive reactions, it stimulates changes. In a group it allows one to appreciate one's potential as well as one's limits. Learning develops memory, understanding and judgement. It triumphs over the inertia of old age, both physically and intellectually, In reaction to decreasing abilities, the older learners are trying to "keep their mind in shape", to maintain some "intellectual dynamism": "I feel ten years younger..."; "even if I am sixty-five years old, I have the same desire to study that I had when I was twenty-five".

For older adults the second category is subdivided: being with peers and being with the educator. All subjects describe themselves as loving company. After class, they express satisfaction: "I have met people. I find it stimulating". In a group mutual help is valued, and it is expected that one will learn as much from peers as from the teacher or animator. For two groups coming to the end of the course was painful, and the participants were looking forward to seeing one another on other occasions or to taking more courses together.The rupture was less difficult in college; there it was more the end of a rhythm in life which was anticipated with sadness. For most subjects, education is a means of being in contact with other people; although learning is not impossible in solitude, it appears meaningless. Interpersonal relationships are seen as a necessary means to personal accomplishment; the well-being of others gives satisfaction, and mutual support is at the core of the peer relationship. Being with the educator is not as important to older adult learners as is being with peers, although the educator's competence is noted and appreciated, and sometimes he or she is the object of identification: "I feel that everything the teacher says is in accord with what I want to learn". Older adults do not perceive educators as being in a position of authority; they expect them to understand their motivation. Age is said to be of no importance. The desire to pursue the relationship outside of formal lerning was found in one context only.

Adult Educators: For their part, adult educators are centered on older learners. They are aware that beyond the immediate object of learning, there is an interior activity going on: "I walk the same road with them; we seek learning in order to live life". They value the close contact with older learners as well as the relationship of trust that it creates: "The interior activity thrives on a shared complicity, on a bond which is the basis of one's reflection". Another educator remarks that close contact gives access to the experience of older people and helps her to prepare for old age herself. For everyone, it is important to enjoy being together. In one instance it was noted that the participants turned easily to one another for support; in another the animator said that her involvement consisted in being part of the group experience. All agreed that they had learned much from their group of older adults. Said one: "They taught me how to live". The educators are aware of the difficulties of ending a gratifying relationship, and one of them is involved in informal reunions now that the course has ended.

Interpretation and conclusion: Since all subjects were voluntarily involved in learning, it may be inferred that they were capable of investment in the self. Many older adults admitted looking for the company of others with aspirations as a corrective for their solitude. Most of them were conscious of the social dimensions of learning, and it is through others that they made their investment in the self.

The solicitude that older adults show toward one another could be interpreted as a demand for love as well as a recognition of having something to contribute. The attitude is also consistent with the role of women as nurturers

Adult educators appear to be uniquely centered on the learners. But the two-pronged relationship is at the end reversed: educators become the learners. Two shifts may be noticed: the identification of the learners with the educators shifts laterally, a complicity is developed with the peers and the educators become part of the group; they share the complicity if indeed they have not induced it. Also, the quest for learning shifts to a quest for life. The symbolic role of learning in relation to the primary self gives open access to the fundamental desire to live.

It appears that older adult education takes its legitimacy in its happening. The enthusiasm found in older adults as well as in educators may be related to a reinforcement of the self in the educational experience. Educational activities structure the desire to learn, insure a continuity in the self, in compensation for the losses experienced with aging, and legitimate the pleasure to be with others.

Acknowledgements: I would like to acknowledge the support of CAFIR, a research funding committee of the Universite de Montreal, and the assistance of Marie-Josee Fleury in the research for this paper.

References:

Assoun, P.L. (1983). "Le vieillissement saisi par la psychanalyse". **Communications**, 37: 167-179

Filloux, J. (1986), **Du contrat pédagogique.** 2nd ed. Paris: Dunod.

Kaës, R., Missenard, A., Kaspi, R., Anzieu, D., Guillaumin, J. & Bleger, J. (1979). **Crise, rupture et depassement.** Paris: Dunod.

Kaës, R., Anzieu, D., Thomas, L.V., Le Guérinel, N. & Filloux, J. (1973). **Fantasme et formation.** Paris: Dunod.

Lazarus, L.W. (1980). "Self psychology and psychotherapy with the elderly: theory and practice". **Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry,** 13(1): 69-88.

Meissner, W.W. (1976). "Normal psychology of the aging process, revisited -1, Discussion". **Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry,** 9(2): 151-160.

Postic, M. (1979). **La relation éducative.** Paris: Presses universitaires de France.

Terrier, G. & Bigeault, J.P. (1975). **Une école pour Oedipe.** Toulouse: Privat.

IMPACT OT ADULT'S PREFERRED LEARNING STYLES AND PERCEPTION OF BARRIERS ON COMPLETION OF EXTERNAL BACCALAUREATE DEGREE PROGRAMS

Chère Campbell Coggins
Assistant Professor, Continuing and Vocational Education
University of Wisconsin-Madison

Abstract

Multivariate analyses identified significant differences in both learning styles and perceived barriers of completers and noncompleters. No relationship was determined between student's preferred learning styles and perception of barriers to completion of an external baccalaureate degree. Additional multivariate studies focusing on motivation, expectancy and locus of control seem indicated.

Introduction

The advent of external degree programs promised to enhance adult students' access to higher education and the necessary educational experiences and credentials required by today's society. While accomplishing the goal of access, attrition has been high and degree completion rates less than ideal. As Moore (1976) noted, "In correspondence teaching there have been a number of studies of such student characteristics as completion rates, attitudes, grade point averages and registration histories, and socio-economic characteristics...(p. 68)." However, he continues, "there have been no studies of learner's personality characteristics, or of personality X correspondence teaching interactions." This oversight seems particularly regrettable given results of earlier research on self-directed independent study conducted by Koenig and McKeachie (1959) which concluded,

> the hypothesis emerging as most plausible is that factors determining success in independent study are primarily attitude, motivation, and other traits of personality rather than academic abilities (p. 134).

Almost ten years later, Thompson (1984) suggested student persistence and student satisfaction with the instructional method have not been studied as extensively when compared with student achievement. This seems regrettable given withdrawl rates of 30%-80% for distance learning (Reddedal, 1972). Toward the end of understanding those variables associated with persistence and non-persistence, this exploratory study investigated the relationships among adult students' preferred learning styles, barriers to participation, and the successful completion of baccalaureate degrees pursued at a distance.

Theoretical Framework

Utilizing the Boshier (1973) congruence model of educational participation and dropout as a theoretical framework, this study focused on the self/student and self/lecturer congruence in terms of learning style preferences, especially conditions and modes of learning. In addition, sub-environmental variables, e.g. situational and institutional barriers, and selected mediating social variables, such as age, educational qualifications, previous educational participation and psychological variables, such as expectancy were explored. Specifically, the research addressed the question: Are there particular learning style, psychosocial, and sub-environmental variables which are predictors of a greater potential to succeed in external baccalaureate degree programs?

Methodology

In this post hoc study data were collected from a stratified random sample of students previously associated with the four University of Wisconsin System Extended Degree programs. A total sample of 210 was drawn with 164 returning the appropriate questionnaires yielding a response rate of 78.1%. A short survey instrument was used to collect selected demographic data. Learning style was measured by the Canfield Learning Style Inventory (CLSI). The CLSI is a 30 item assessment using a 4-point rank order procedure for each item. The instrument generates a total of 21 subscale variables grouped into four major areas: preferred conditions, content, modes and expectancy (performance). Conditions variables include a preference for the following: peer affiliation and instructor affiliation; organization and detailed structure; independence and setting one's own goals; and authority and competition. Content variables include preferences for numerics, language (writing and discussion), objects (working with things versus people) and people (interviewing and counselling). Mode variables are comprised of preferences for listening, reading, iconics (audio-visuals) and direct, hands-on experience. The remaining five variables are additive and generate a single expected performance (class grade) score or can be used singly. Subscale reliabilities range from $r=.52$ - .99 and face validity of the instrument has been determined using over 3,000 adult subjects.

A "barriers" instrument developed for this study provided an assessment of students' perceived barriers to completion of their degree programs. Consisting of 36 items ($r=.89$) and one open-ended question, the instrument used a Likert scale to indicate the amount of difficulty students experienced in dealing with situational, dispositional, institutional and independent study barriers (Cross, 1981).

Findings

Approximately 60% of the respondents were female with a majority (80.3%) of individuals between the ages of 25 and 45 at the time of enrollment. Seventy-seven percent lived over 51 miles from campus with the majority (36.0%) living from 101-200 miles away. Ninety-three percent of respondents were employed outside of the home with 75.8% of these individuals employed full time during their studies. Approximately 75% were married, 71.2% with children. Chi square analyses showed no significant differences between completers and noncompleters on these variables.

Significant differences were found between completers and noncompleters on several other variables. More specifically 96.4% of the completers in comparison to 65.7% of the noncompleters indicated an intention to complete a degree (Chi square = 25.66, df=3, p=.0000). Completers and noncompleters also differed significantly in their levels of education at the time of enrollment (Chi square = 27.62, df=6, p=.0001.) with 73.5% of the completers having finished 2-3 years of college prior to enrollment in comparison to 32.9% of the noncompleters. Additionally 22.9% of noncompleters had four years of college in contrast to 6.0% of completers. Comparison of completers and noncompleters in terms of years since last college credit course yielded significant differences as well (Chi square = 10.15, df=3, p=.0173) with 46.3% completers having taken a college credit course within two years prior to enrollment, 64.6% within five years. The noncompleter data yielded 21.7% and 46.3% respectively.

Hotelling's T statistic was used to determine if learning style differences existed between completers and noncompleters. This multivariate test of significance (S=1, m=9 1/2, N=64 1/2) was significant with F=.028. Further univariate analyses isolated these learning style subscales which account for the differences between completers and noncompleters - Expectancy of an A (F = .000), Expectancy of a C (F = .000), Overall expectancy (F = .000), Inanimate objects (F = .026), and People (F = .043). On closer examination of the latter two subscales, it was noted that noncompleters had a higher preference for inanimate/objects-related content and a lower preference for people content. However on comparing respondents by program, the Chi square analysis revealed significant differences in cell sizes at .05 level. (Chi square = 16.74, df=3, p=.0008) with the program at River Falls providing a limited number of completers in comparison to the other programs. Post hoc Scheffe's also identified differences among and between programs in terms of learners' content preferences.

A discriminant analysis was conducted to determine the best linear combination for distinguishing among completers and noncompleters on the basis of learning style data. Seven variables made up the final model including: C-Expectancy; People-Content; Numeric-Content; Peers-Conditions; D-Expectancy; Direct Experience-Mode; and Detail-Conditions. Canonical discriminant functions yielded an eigenvalue of 0.21594, a canonical correlation of 0.4214, Wilk's Lambda 0.8224, Chi squared = 28.839, df=7, p=.0002. The percent of "grouped" cases correctly classified based on the model generated by the discriminant analysis was 69.93% with 79.5% of completers and 58.6% noncompleters correctly classified. (It should be noted that Overall Expectancy of Success alone resulted in correct classification of 68.7% of completers and 60% of noncompleters for an overall rate of 64.71%.)

In comparing completers and noncompleters on the intensity with which they perceive barriers to completion in their program of study, noncompleters tended to view barriers more severely (p=.0000). More specifically, completers were significantly different from noncompleters in their perception of situational, independent study and dispositional barriers. A stepwise discriminant analysis procedure revealed that the independent study and dispositional barrier categories were the most relevant to prediction. Based on these variables, 74.7% of the completers and 67.1% of the non-completers were correctly classified. with an overall rate of 71.24% of cases correctly classified based on the model.

Multiple regression procedures determined that only small amounts of variance in barriers could be explained by the following learning style subscales: goal setting, independence, reading, expectancy of success, peer affiliation, instructor affiliation and competition. More specifically reading accounted for 12% of the variance, expectancy and goal setting explained an additional 6% and 4% respectively.

Discussion

This exploratory study examined a wide variety of "personal" variables, including demographic data and learning style preferences. Similar to previous studies of completers and non-completers in external baccalaureate degree programs (Langenbach and Korhonen, 1986), the variables of gender and occupation did not differentiate completers from non-completers, nor did variables related to marital status and the presence or absence of children. Distance from campus was also not significantly different between completers and noncompleters in contrast to previous studies of Langenbach and Korhonen, (1986) and Meadors (1984). This difference in findings may be accounted for by the fact that the majority of the participants in this study lived 101-200 miles from campus. In addition, there was no significant difference between completers and non-completers in terms of age on entry into the baccalaureate programs. This finding supports that of Billingham and Travaglini (1981), yet conflicts with those of Long's (1983) summary of persisters data and Langenbach and Korhonen (1986). The narrow age range of participants in this study (80% between ages 25-45) may account for these differences in findings.

Significant differences between completers and noncompleters were noted in terms of educational level prior to enrollment, intention to earn a degree and length of time since last college credit course. Noncompleters were disproportionally represented at the extreme ends of the continuum between high school education and four years of college. Given the educational programs under investigation are upper division programs, faculty may be making assumptions regarding past experiences of students in college, and therefore those with limited or no experience in college may be at a disadvantage. Also 65.7% of non-completers indicated no intention of earning a degree. In a post hoc study such as this one must question whether or not rationalization of non-completion played a part in this response. The significant difference between completers and non-completers in terms of length of time since last college credit course may relate to the fact that recent experience makes one better prepared for additional college work or perhaps may serve as an indication of a lifelong learner.

The lack of significant differences in terms of conditions for learning and preferred learning modality, as defined by Canfield are supportive of those findings of Langenbach and Korhonen (1986). Further analysis, including comparison of these data to Canfield's population norms and other CLSI data from returning adult students, are needed to determine if self-selection into a distance learning program has resulted in an homogeneous grouping of learning style preferences. Whether learning style differences can be discerned in such a homogeneous grouping utilizing the CLSI remains open to question as well.

Completers and noncompleters were however significantly different in terms of perception of independent study variables, many of which relate to conditions of learning at a distance. Noncompleters perceived the following as much more problematic than completers: having few opportunities to meet with instructor face-to-face; knowing how to study; lack of discussion; time required to complete degree; feeling isolated; taking responsibility for study plan; and having sufficient guidance.

As in the Langenbach and Korhonen (1986) study, self-perception of academic ability of completers was significantly different than that of non-completers. In this study completers had a significantly higher expectancy of an A, non-completers a higher expectancy of a C. In terms of dispositional barriers, noncompleters were significantly different from their successful counterparts in terms of thinking they were too old to learn, confidence in their ability to learn, energy to give to studies, motivation, ability to concentrate, knowing value of degree, perceptions of increased stress, and setting specific study times. On what basis are students determining their future performance? On past grades in high school or college? Billingham and Travaglini (1981) determined entering grade point average to be a significant variable for distinguishing completers from non-completers.

Implications for Practice

Recent writings of Pratt (1987) highlight the importance of situational, learner and teacher variables in adult learning. He notes, "direction and support are the keys to a teacher's role and to the relationship between teacher and learner." (p. 165) Further, the need for direction occurs when learners "lack the necessary knowledge and skills to make informed choices." Noncompleters appear to voice concerns about their knowledge, skills and abilities in general as we view their perceptions of dispositional barriers. In addition, expectancy scores suggest a lack of confidence in their ability to accomplish the goal of degree - a goal few were commited to - a situation Pratt would posit would indicate the need for support. Our data would suggest therefore a strong need for direction and support during the initial courses, study skills coursework to strengthen confidence to successfully engage in distance learning, and preadmission counseling focusing a match between interests and intentions of student and the degree program.

Implications for Research

Given the increasing emphasis on learning at a distance and the limited knowledge of persistence in credit and non-credit learning, additional research seems indicated. The findings of this study suggest motivation, locus of control and expectancy, as well as teacher direction and support would appear to be areas of needed research. Multivariate studies with a sound theoretical framework can add much to our body of understanding.

Bibliography

Billingham, C. and B. Travaglini. 1981. Predicting adult academic success in an undergraduate program. Alternative Higher Education 5, 169-182

Boshier, R. (1973). Educational participation and dropout: A theoretical model. Adult Education, 23, 255-282.

Canfield, A. (1980). Learning Styles Inventory Manual. Ann Arbor, MI: Humanics Media, Inc.

Cross, K. Patricia. (1981). Adults as Learners. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, Inc.

Koenig, Kathryn and McKeachie, Wilbert. (1959). Personality and independent study. Journal of Educational Psychology, 50, 132-135.

Langenbach, M. and Korhonen, L. (1986). An analysis of selected personal variable associated with persistence in a nontraditional liberal arts upper division degree program. In Proceedings, 1986 Midwest Research to Practice Conference in Adult, Community and Continuing Education. Muncie, IN: Ball State University.

McClosky, H. (1968). Political participation. In Sills, D. (ed.) Encyclopedia of Social Sciences. New York: McMillan. pp 252-265.

Moore, Michael. (1976). Investigation of the interaction between cognitive style of field independence and attitude to independent study among adult learners who use correspondence and self-directed independent study. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin.

Pratt, D. (1988). Andragogy as a relational construct. Adult Education Quarterly, 38, 149-172.

Reddedal, Torstein. (1972). Correspondence studies: Recruitment, achievement and discontinuance. Oslo: NKI-Skolen.

Wiesner, P. (1983). Some observations on telecourse research and practice. Adult Education Quarterly, 33 (4), pp. 215-221.

Teacher Actions that Influence Native American Learners

Gary J. Conti
University of Georgia

Robert A. Fellenz
Montana State University

Abstract

Native American students readily identify characteristics of good and bad teachers. Good teachers respect a student's dignity while helping in the learning process. They create a caring atmosphere with individual attention where learning is fun. Bad teachers erect barriers between themselves and the students and thwart questioning and personal development.

Introduction

The Kellogg Center has been created at Montana State University to conduct research on adult learning. First year research at the center focused on the teaching-learning transaction. A major research project for the staff was the investigation of the teaching and learning style influences on Native Americans at the tribally controlled community colleges in the state.

The Tribally Controlled Community College Act created an educational system for adults on reservations. These schools are regular community colleges with the additional mission of maintaining the culture of the tribe. Montana has more tribal colleges than any other state with a college on each of its seven reservations. All seven colleges cooperated with the Kellogg Center in a two-part study. The first part used a rationalistic design to measure the learning style of Native American students enrolled in the colleges, the teaching style of instructors at the colleges, and the influences of these styles on student achievement. The second part of the study used a naturalistic design and was concerned with the behaviors of teachers that contributed to student learning.

In Phase 1 of the project, learning style data based on the Canfield Learning Style Inventory were collected on 693 students at the seven tribal colleges on the reservations in Montana. From this group, students with unique learning style profiles were identified. During Phase 2 of the project, 72 of these students were interviewed. Approximately 10 students were interviewed at each of the seven campuses. A balance was sought between genders; different age groups were represented; extreme scores in all categories of the Canfield Learning Style Inventory were included. Most of the students interviewed were Native Americans. Each interview lasted approximately 45 minutes. The interview format probed for information on three topics. Students were asked about (1) their best teachers, (2) their worst teachers, and (3) things that teachers did to either hinder or reinforce their learning style. Explanations were sought to describe each type of teacher.

Good Teachers

Students were extremely eager to talk about good teachers. Most had absolutely no difficulty in recalling good teachers. When students were encouraged to think about any learning experiences which they had, they did not hesitate to include teachers from all levels of learning. Most, however, restricted their comments to teachers which they had in formal school settings. From the quickness and clarity of the student responses, it was apparent that the students can effectively identify the characteristics of those that they consider quality teachers. They are equally adept in recognizing those who hinder their learning

The most commonly noted characteristic of good teachers is the respect which they show for the students as human beings. Regardless of the situation, good teachers always allow the students to maintain their dignity. The teachers are genuinely interested in the students and convey to them a sense that they are the important thing. "They ask your opinion" and find out about student's needs and questions. Understanding teachers create an atmosphere in which students are not afraid to talk about their concerns, problems, and deficiencies. In these conversations, good teachers give them feedback which not only helps them learn but also strengthens their self-concepts. Students described this respect for treating them like adults in the following ways.

- Teacher needs to treat you as a person--not just as a number.
- They should show interest in my learning.
- They made you feel important.
- They don't make you feel dumb. They help you refresh your mind on what you already had.
- One big thing is that you aren't wrong.
- She says it's never a stupid question if you don't understand it.
- She drew me out of my shell. I used to be afraid to talk. She gave me self-confidence.
- He was concerned about you as a person.

Students realize that attitude is a two-way process. While educators tend to focus on the attitude of the students, students access the attitude of the teacher. Good teachers have an open mind, are willing to admit mistakes, and do not have favorites. "They don't have an attitude problem," they do "not put the blame on the student," and they do "not show favoritism for just those who are super interested in the subject. They...get everyone involved." With these teachers, students feel that this "means you can cuss him out when he is wrong...you can tell him how it is." Likewise, "if she flubbed up, she put us at ease by saying, 'Everybody messes up.'"

Good teachers display a variety of warm, human feelings that are telegraphed to students by a smile. Unlike smiles in the movie industry or the political arena, students know the true smile from a teacher cannot be fabricated. They recognize good teachers by "that smilish look on his face." They know that "good ones smile a lot" and that there is a lot of meaning and feeling in a smile. From these expressions they can sense that "she made me feel welcome. She [radiated] a genuine smile. You can tell if someone is genuine by looking in their eyes. You can tell."

Other warm, human qualities that students readily recognize in good teachers are patience, feelings, and a general zest for life. Students appreciate teachers who are patient with them as they struggle through the learning process. They are unwilling to just "push me off" and will spend the time to teach "you to how to do things that others expected you to know."

In the teaching-learning transaction, good teachers are conscious of students feelings. They communicate that feelings are "the basis of teaching. Everyone has a different set of feelings" and values. Teachers have to deal with these. When correcting student errors, they need to consider the student's feelings and immediate situation. Teachers who respect the students are able to "touch on your feelings." In addition to addressing student feelings, good teachers "tell you some of their deepest feelings," and "he gets you to feeling what he's feeling. If you don't have a professor with opinions, its like watching TV....[He is] allowing me to know how I might feel."

Finally, good teachers appear to have a zest for life that is not limited to the classroom. Although they "know when to be serious," they "are real loose. This helps you in learning. It's not a dog eat dog world here." They have a "good attitude [toward life] and are always laughing. You can tell by the way he looked; he appeared easy to get along with....[He had] nothing harsh to say about people." Outside of class, they talk to students on the street and share with students things from their background. They are commonly referred to as a "good guy" or "understanding."

Students know that good teachers care about them. Caring is related to both the subject material and to them as individuals. While the subject material is important, good teachers realize that it is learned on a personal basis. Therefore, they take the responsibility for initiating the inquiry to find out if the students truly understand. Students translate this into caring described in the following ways.

- They're not up there to just throw out information. They care about you as a person.
- He cared about what he did and about students. He made me feel an equal.
- They care that you are learning about what they are interested in.
- He cares. He wants you to do good. He will ask if you understand. He will ask, "Did you catch on yet? Do you understand?"
- They are interested in me....They cared. They didn't look at me as a dummy or Indian.
- Feeling that if you didn't come to class that you would be missed.

Good teachers are friendly. Students feel comfortable in their presence. These teachers are seen as more than a giver of subject material. Indeed, they are the kind of people that students enjoy associating with outside of the classroom environment. They are friendly, joke around, and do not take things too seriously. In getting to know students, they "just talk to you in a nice voice" and let it be known that they are the "kind of person you can deal with."

- [They are] friendly and warm. They are not looking down at you. It's not like a doctor's office.
- Teachers want to be your friend. Good teachers talk to all of the students. At break they will talk to us about personal things--about things they do in their life.

Student attitudes range from "I'm in my 30's, don't make me feel like a high school kid" to "I love a teacher who likes to shoot the breeze about anything."

Difficulties in learning or personal problems do not always occur according to the class schedule. Questions and problem related to class need immediate and sometimes private attention. Students know that good teachers are available whenever they are needed. "They will stick around after class," and "you don't need to make an appointment a week ahead" in order to see them. Some give students their home phone number. All are available outside of class and convey that "you are welcome to his office." They are frequently seen and are approachable in the student areas, in the halls, and in the community. Their actions announce, "I'm here," and they "welcome you with big arms and by heart."

Good teachers enjoy what they are doing. This enthusiasm is contagious and easily recognized by students. With these teachers, the students sense that they and the topic are far more valuable than money. Students observed:

- It didn't seem that she was there to get paid but to teach us something she was interested in.
- If you are excited about what they are teaching, it passes on....[Good teachers] are always excited about class....They want your ideas on the class...the good, bad, and ugly of class.
- They get involved....It's not just a job for the money. They enjoy what they are teaching. You can sense that they enjoy it.

Although students refer predominately to interpersonal characteristics when describing good teachers, they also have high academic expectations of them. Students come to class to learn. While personable teachers can greatly facilitate this process, learning cannot occur if there is a void of content. Therefore, the good teachers know the subject material well. They can wander off the topic to another subject, do not have to follow the book, can relate the subject to real life, know the subject material so well that they can joke about it, and can pursue student interests. They give students a chance to ask probing questions and are able to answer them in ways that students can understand. "The knew what they were talking about. It's not like they were just a few chapters ahead of you in the book."

Good teachers do a variety of things that are congruent with their personal characteristics. Although most formal learning activities are organized by the class format, learning problems are individual. Therefore, good teachers provide individual attention when needed. They watch the students and know what they are doing. They relate to individual student goals and give students as much time as they need to learn things. Being available "one-to-one" is a common descriptor for this teacher action. Students point out that "when I was stuck on a problem, they would individually tutor me." Showing their interest in the student as a person, good teachers "will sit with you and tell you why." They will personally help in solving problems. During this one-to-one process, the teacher not only helps but also listens and gets involved. Individual attention allows the student to be accepted by the teacher and paves the way for expanded learning opportunities.

"Good teachers explain things well." They know how to simplify the subject and explain it in laymen's terms that are easy to understand. Most of all, they are willing to take the time to explain things to assure that students thoroughly understand the topic. If students appear to be lost, they will give additional explanations. Students described this process in the following ways.

- He explained it to where we could understand it. He let us make our own decisions. He was enthusiastic. He would get us to ask questions and wait for our answers.

- He took time explaining things. If I told him I didn't understand, he would go over it again. If I had trouble on the homework, he would give it over the second night.
- They would make sure that I understood it.
- If you don't understand it, they do it differently.

Students describe good teachers as being helpful. These teachers realize that the class is a learning experience and that the reason the student is there is to learn the things related to the class. Therefore, they do not "expect you to know things ahead of time. That's why they are here." Instead, they help students learn them. They "ask if you need help" and are ready to help in anyway possible.

Good teachers explore ideas and "stimulate you to think." Since their major concern is with the individual, "they will go back if you don't understand something." They often use humor to "keep us alive mentally" or to "help keep our brains from wandering too far." They are outspoken and allow their ideas to be challenged. This creates an exciting environment in which students want to participate.

Good teachers encourage students. Students feel this encouragement is important. These encouraging comments help students realistically assess their progress in the learning process and help build a positive self-concept. Students said the following about encouraging teachers.

- If I said that I couldn't do it, they said, "Yes you can," and they helped.
- [I was encouraged when he said,] "Yes math is hard but you can do it."
- They always have little encouraging words for you.

The way that teachers handle questions in the formal classroom is central to the students view of the class and teacher. The massive amount of interview data gathered suggests that the topic of questioning be addressed separately as a broader topic than the actions of the teacher. However, students view good teachers as ones who are not intimated by their questions, appreciate students who ask questions, encourage students to ask questions, answer the questions fully, and seek feedback to assure that the student understands and that the question was completely answered. Formal education is heavily dominated by the lecture technique. Therefore, this questioning process is crucial because asking questions is the major mechanism for student participation. Without it, students are passive. Believing that "you learn more when you ask questions," students appreciate the following:

- He said, "If you have any further questions, ask because that's what I'm here for."
- They answer my foolish questions....They answer until I fully understand.
- If you have a question, they don't mind answering you.

Closely related to questioning is discussion. Many students recognize that they can learn much from others in the class. With this in mind, they characterized good teachers as ones who encouraged discussions in which students can express their opinions and receive feedback. They contrast this to teachers who only lecture. While ideas are exchanged as a result of these discussions and some groundwork is laid for building a social network that reinforces learning, the use of the term discussion must be applied cautiously. Although some described discussions in terms of small groups with much student autonomy, most defined discussions as a teacher-directed activity in which one student had an opportunity to speak while the others listened.

Good teachers are not afraid to repeat things. They do not go over important things just once. Instead they stick with the topic until the students know it. They use many examples and supplementary materials when necessary. Rather than posing as an authority figure, good teachers serve as willing helpers who repeat and recognize concepts as much as possible to aid learning. Students feel that:

- It's important that they go over it until you learn it. They are there to help. They should not take the attitude that "I can't do anything about it. It's up to you to learn it."
- Good teachers keep explaining it in *different* ways until you get it. "Well, let me explain it this way."

As a result of the personal characteristics and actions, good teachers make learning fun. Students enjoy being in the class and interacting with the teacher. Since they come to class to learn, they know that there is a time for work. However, since it is done in an environment of trust and respect and in one which their concerns are met, it is a pleasurable experience which may be summarized as "he made learning fun."

Bad Teachers

Students were also able to describe those that they considered bad teachers. Their word choices, facial expressions, and vivid examples indicated that they had personally suffered in classes with bad teachers. In addition to not learning the subject material, their self-esteems were often wounded and their views of mankind somewhat dampened. Their preference was for talking about good teachers. Often while describing a bad teacher, they would transpose the negative characteristic of the bad teacher into its opposite positive characteristic and would then begin to talk about good teachers.

Students associated a host of negative personal characteristics with bad teachers. "My worst teachers were impatient." They tend to be "stand offish," "can't smile," and "seem over-tense." "They can't lighten up." Some "ignore you...they pretend to be too busy for you." Others actually get "mad" at students when they are having difficulty in learning. They are inflexible; "you do it my way." They lay down the rules, and "that's the way its going to be." Students sense an overall "bad attitude" which tells them that "there is nothing personal" and that "you know its going to be unpleasant when you walk in."

- You knew after about a week that she would give you a scolding if you said, "Good morning." She would look at you like you were sick. If you asked a question, she would say, "Why weren't you listening?"
- A teacher I had last quarter was very insensitive. We would sit with blank faces, but she would just continue. She appeared to be snobbish and got upset [hostile and defensive] over things we said.
- I'm experiencing it now in a Western Civilization course. He has a monotone voice. I like for the teacher to be friendly, but this guy doesn't smile. The class is large. I'll go sit and feel like I'm just another number.

One indicator of the insensitivity of bad teachers is their use of condescending comments. Several students referred to teachers "derogatory" remarks and used terms such as "stupid," "sarcastic," "discrimination," and "cussing" to describe language bad teachers used to belittle students. Their "snide" remarks are often included in discriminatory humor or directed at the class in general. Regardless of the teacher's intent or naivete, students take these comments personally.

Bad teachers seem to enjoy the power inherent in being in charge of a class. "Some teachers really like to show authority." Their view is that something needs to be taught; this is fundamentally different from the student's view that they have something to learn. In pursuing this authority approach, bad teachers project the image that "you were either right or wrong, and if you were wrong, the whole class knew it."

Bad teachers have expectancy requirements that make it impossible for students to succeed. Even though the purpose of the class is to learn something, they expect students to have the exit skills and attitudes at the beginning of the course. No effort is made to help them remediate deficiencies which they may possess. "They think it is so incredibly easy and look at you as if to say, 'Why do you ask?'" In others words, "just because she knew it, she expected you to."

Many students feel that teachers should give them some type of signal to indicate that it is appropriate to begin a personal interaction with the teacher. Bad teachers "have favorites" and do not give them signals. Consequently, students are left "waiting for the teacher to give me a signal -- some indication of caring." One student said, "I was still waiting for her to take me aside to find out what was wrong" when the course ended. These actions clearly tell students that "teachers don't have time for you," that they will "not listen to me...[and] not figure out what my problem was," and that "they don't pay attention to me. She looks by you." It is further exacerbated by the feeling that "they just throw the book at you." They "just give you the subject matter bluntly" which is "straight from the book" and have "you read the chapter and do the questions."

Bad teachers do not explain or give the students the individual attention they need to solve their problems. Instead,

- If I have a problem, he lets me beat my brains out instead of helping me.
- He expects the person to learn from the book and is all over the board. I can't follow him.

The worst ones seem to "come in and start writing on the blackboard automatically."

While good teachers genuinely enjoy teaching, bad teachers seem to be there "just to pick up their paychecks." They do not "seem to really enjoy teaching" and "aren't interested in the subject." Overall "they are just there for the dollar. They could care less if you come or not." For one bad teacher, "teaching was all an act; he was phony. He didn't care about students as people."

Bad teachers effectively communicate their disdain for students through the questioning process. While students feel that "you can't learn if you can't ask questions," bad teachers discourage students questioning by giving highly technical answers, "sighing," belittling the student for asking, or simply not adequately answering the questions. Students described these negative characteristics as follows:

- They don't answer my questions. They give a quick answer or answer that does not apply to what I asked. It's not a sound answer. I can't relate to the answer.
- Why don't you understand this? I've explained it three times.
- Well you should understand; it's written in black and white.
- If you knew what you were talking about you wouldn't have asked that.
- If you ask question in class, he gives you a smart aleck answer....If it was this way, why did you bother to ask....I felt dumb for asking....You learn don't bother asking, you'll get the same treatment.

Students want teachers to be problem-solvers rather than authority figures. Questions and individual attention allow students to interact with the teachers and to participate in this problem-solving venture. Bad teachers not only discourage the questioning but also present an aura that "they did not want to help you" or that "they wouldn't take the time to help you." Instead of helping, they are more concerned with pushing forward at the predetermined pace for the course. While some students attributed this to the teachers lack of content expertise, others felt it was due to their lack of concern for students. Regardless of the reason, the outcome is the same: "It's hard to ask for help. Then to have them turn you down!"

Thus, bad teachers are negative forces in the lives of students. They frustrate the student's learning, belittle them in class, make them feel insecure or angry, and cause them to question their self-concept. Bad teachers can leave long enduring scars. Students remembered a second grade music teacher who destroyed a burning desire to learn to play the piano, a sixth grade science teacher who accused a student of cheating and publicly punished him when in fact he was only taking notes on the lesson, and a grade school math teacher who discouraged a female Native American from studying math because of gender, race, and intelligence stereotypes. These adult students are still carrying the memories instilled by these bad teachers.

Conclusion

The characteristics of good and bad teachers can be identified and clearly described from talking to students. Good teachers have a basic human respect for students and allow them to develop in the classroom. These teachers thoroughly enjoy teaching and radiate this excitement through their expressions and actions. Bad teachers, on the other hand, do not communicate this same degree of respect for their students. In not seeming to enjoy teaching, they repress student questioning and probing. Although they are opposite reactions, both good teachers and bad teachers stimulate extreme feelings in students. Students know good teachers and bad teachers when they encounter them, and they know the traits which can be used to classify a teacher. In addition to those described in this paper, this research project identified other teacher behaviors such as enthusiasm, questioning, testing, using humor, and dealing with cultural influences. Future research should explore the relationship of these characteristics and behaviors to measures of teaching style.

INTERNATIONAL ADULT EDUCATION COOPERATION AND EXCHANGE: VIEWS FROM 14 COUNTRIES

Peter S. Cookson
Associate Professor of Adult Education
Penn State

Abstract

This paper presents an update of the yet on-going International Adult Education Exchange and Cooperation Policy Delphi. The Phase II findings which encompass respondent choices of most and least desired responses are summarized. Implications of the findings thus far reported are briefly presented.

Introduction

Several years ago, the researcher gained the support of the Canadian Association for Adult Education, the Standing Conference on University Teaching and Research in Education of Adults, the International Task Force of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education, and the International Adult Education Section of the American Association of Adult and Continuing Education in joint sponsorship of an International Adult Education Exchange and Cooperation Directory (Cookson, 1984) and, in connection with the compilation of that Directory, a three-phase "International Adult Education Delphi Study" was initiated. As denoted by its name, the aim of the study was to tap and distill the views of the adult educators listed in the Directory on a variety of issues related to exchange and cooperation across international boundaries. The aim was to gather these views and to present them in a systematic and coherent way to the various organizational sponsors for implementation of policies and practices designed to enhance reciprocal and mutually-beneficial exchanges among adult educators in North America with counterparts in other countries.

This policy Delphi was to consist of three phases: The aim of Phase I, reported previously (Cookson, 1986), was to elicit responses to six open-ended questions (presented below) sent to a panel of adult educators interested in having their named entered in a Directory of International Exchange and Cooperation. The aim of Phase II was to narrow the choices of the items generated in Phase I. Phase III was to provide respondents with an opportunity to supply additional explanations for their choices, in addition to make suggestions for implementation of those choices.

The final outcome of the policy Delphi will be a report to each of the associations sponsoring the project. Unfortunately, the project has not received financial support from any of the sponsoring organizations to defray expenses associated with printing, mailing, and data analysis. Consequently, with the researcher having to rely for funding on whatever "crumbs" he could scrape up within his own institution, the exercise has been protracted over several years. Now that Phase II has been completed, it is anticipated that Phase III will be concluded during the coming year.

This paper constitutes a follow-up and report of the study's Phase II which asked respondents to select the most salient response alternatives to the previous Phase I questionnaire. The first section presents information relating to the method of the policy Delphi technique. The second section describes the backgrounds of the respondents to the Phase II questionnaire. The third section contains the specific findings. The final section is devoted to a brief discussion of the implications of the findings.

Method

The method utilized by this study is characterized as "policy Delphi." As a research and communication strategy, Delphi has been used since the early 1950s. Although often employed to forecast future events, it has also been used to identify other perceptions of reality held by experts knowledgeable in a specialized area. Typically, the outcome of a Delphi is consensus about a given subject. In contrast, policy Delphi does not seek to establish what some critics might regard as a specious consensus relative to a specific reality. Rather, it makes allowance for and indeed encourages elucidation of not only convergent but also legitimate and valid divergent responses. It is particularly useful when the focus is not on consensus *per se*, but rather, on exploration of alternatives, and *pro* and *contra* arguments for those alternatives (Jillson, 1975).

In tabulating the responses to Phase I, it quickly became evident that two of the original six questions asked about both "problems" and "challenges," causing some respondents to focus on "problems" while others focused on "challenges." To remove the source of confusion, it was decided to divide each of those questions into two additional questions. Common and overlapping responses for all of the now eight questions were deleted, leaving eight sets of unique items. The Phase II questionnaire was then mailed to the 235 original respondents. With the number of items for each of the questions ranging from 19 to 78, the questionnaire was extremely long (18 pages of minuscule print). It was not surprising, therefore, that only 68 of the original 235 respondents returned the Phase II questionnaire for analysis.

One objective of the Phase II questionnaire was to reduce the number of responses to the questions and to tap the underlying assumptions and rationale--both pro and con--for the various points of view reflected in their responses. Accordingly, respondents were asked to rate each response item according to three criteria: desirability (worth or benefits), importance (priority or relevance), and either confidence (in validity of argument or premise) or feasibility (practicality). They were also asked to identify three responses for each question about which they had the most personal and/or professional interest and concern as well as three responses about which they had the least personal and/or professional interest and concern.

Findings

Characteristics of Respondents

With respect to their background, 79% of the respondents were from one of three countries: the USA (44%), Canada (19%), and the UK (16%). The remaining 11% originated in 11 other countries, for a total of 14 countries. Respondents reported a variety of professional rolesd: 69% reported conducting research relating to education of adults, 63% reported teaching about adult education to university students or adult education practitioners, 52% reported counseling or advising adults who participate in education programs, 50% reported administration of education programs for adults, 32% reported formulation and evaluation of public policies relative to education for adults, and 21% reported a variety of other roles. Seventy percent were employed within a university or similar higher education setting.

Item Choices

Responses were selected as the most and the least desirable choices. If a substantial number of respondents regarded an item as preponderantly negative or positive, that item was retained for further analysis. The findings (the number of respondents selecting each item appears in parantheses) for each of the eight questions are presented below:

Question #1. In the remaining years of the 20th century, how might adult educators in Canada and the USA best contribute to international exchange and cooperation with adult educators in other countries?

Most interest and concern:

Sponsor student and personnel exchanges. (22)
Formulate joint projects with adult educators in other countries. (21)
Provide technical assistance/consultation. (18)
Host visitors from other countries. (16)
Conduct comparative adult education research. (16)

Least interest and concern:

Create new publications. (30)
Form new kind of organization to promote international exchange and cooperation. (27)
Formulate joint policies with adult educators in other countries. (25)
Raise funds for a variety of programs and services. (22)
North American journals should offer opportunities for publication to practitioners in countries financially unable to provide their outlets. (16)

Question #2. In the remaining years of the 20th century, how might adult educators elsewhere in the world best contribute to international exchange and cooperation with adult educators in Canada and the USA?

Most interest and concern:

Undertake cooperative and/or joint research projects. (16)
Establish informal person-to-person linkages. (12)
Organize university faculty and student exchange programs. (11)
Reciprocal visits. (10)
Exchange information on research findings, materials, methodology, and problems. (10)

Least interest and concern:

Learn Esperanto, the international auxiliary language. (44)
Form a society. (17)
Issue a statement on the need for discussions. (13)
Formulate common approaches to adult education for key social groups, particularly disadvantaged groups (e.g., unemployed, ethnic minorities). (13)
Produce a multilingual journal or international newsletter for each branch or distinct group within adult education. (12)
Help in overcoming the language barrier. (11)

Question #3A. In the remaining years of the 20th century, what appear to be the most serious problems facing adult educators in your country or region?

Most interest and concern:

Technological change. (22)
Functional illiteracy. (18)
Threat to world peace through lack of understanding and ideological barriers. (17)
Pressures to concentrate on training rather than education. (16)
Lack of respect for and recognition of adult education as an integral part of college and university programs of study. (13)
Poverty and disadvantagement. (13)

Least interest and concern:

Falling birth rate. (24)
Disorganization on a state and national level. (15)
Foreseen political repression. (13)
Intergenerational gaps. (13)

Question #3B. In the remaining years of the 20th century, what appear to be the most serious challenges facing adult educators in your country or region?

Most interest and concern:

How to use our skills and awareness to bring about peace rather than to increase the dangers of world destruction. (22)
Challenge to use an aging adult population as a reservoir of expertise. (22)
Bring about more satisfactory public policies for adult education and lifelong education. (16)
Expanding general understanding of what adult education really is--its breadth and scope--and what it can do. (15)
Protection of the environment. (13)
Public policy and public support of adult education as a vehicle for lessening the gap between the educational "haves" and "have nots." (12)

Least interest and concern:

Maintain a clear focus on critical issues in the professional corporate realm. (20)
Because of right wing politics, maintaining the scale and essence of traditional liberal provision. (17)
Integration of adult education into the general education system. (14)
Maintain growth in numbers of students. (14)

Question #4A. In the remaining years of the 20th century, what appear to be the most serious problems facing adult educators throughout the world?

Most interest and concern:

Nuclear arms proliferation, international animosity, and threat of war. (21)
Technological change resulting in worker displacement/functional illiteracy requiring re-education services. (12)
Massive needs which cannot be satisfied by conventional adult education methods. (10)
Widening gap between "haves" and "have nots." (10)

Least interest and concern:

Adult education becoming an ideo-political instrument. (17)
Dangers of educating in isolation (i.e., of instrumental education which raises expectations and individual ambitions without having relevance to society or community). (15)
Falling birth rate. (14)
Continuing subordination of adult education to initial education. (11)
Decreasing numerical enrollments. (10)
Lack of empirical research and data bases in many areas. (10)

Question #4B. In the remaining years of the 20th century, what appear to be the most serious challenges facing adult educators throughout the world?

Most interest and concern:

Understand world interdependence and the need for peace. (12)
Develop "how to learn" skills so that education design, provision, and evaluation are more collaborative between learners and educators. (10)

Least interest and concern:

Work with panculture for a new world order with equal opportunities for all. (16)
Develop a political theory of adult education policy. (12)
Overcome the language barriers (more foreign language courses in adult education). (10)
Nation-building. (10)

Question #5. In the remaining years of the 20th century, what benefits might be gained from informal person-to-person exchanges and cooperation between adult educators in Canada and the USA and adult educators in other countries?

Most interest and concern:

Better insight into cross-cultural differences and similarities affecting the practice of adult education. (13)

Least interest and concern:

Reduced feelings of intimidation by adult educators in North America. (14)
Building up of a more powerful "pressure group." (11)
Strengthening of commitment to fight nuclear arms. (11)
Brainstorming. (10)

Question #6. In the remaining years of the 20th century, what benefits might be gained from formal exchange and cooperation between the International Adult education Section of the AAACE and the International Adult Education Task Force of the CPAE and similar adult education associations and organizations elsewhere in the world?

Most interest and concern:

Promote and finance large scale surveys of adult education systems with a cross-cultural comparative perspective. (11)
Growing understanding of adult education in the promotion of unity and

peace in the world. (8)
More effective use of limited resources. (8)
Greater understanding of adult education in other countries. (7)

Least interest and concern:

Agreement of total and unqualified politicization on international problems facing the entire world. (12)
Endow chairs for professors in the field. (9)

Discussion and Conclusions

The responses to the first two questions suggest a shared commitment to contribute to international adult education exchange and cooperation by and with North American adult educators. No large outlay of funds is needed to sponsor or host exchanges and visits of overseas visitors. Such reciprocal interactions can lead to more intensive exchanges of information, materials, and methods, as well as subsequent formulation of joint projects. As funds and needs are matched with available talents--perhaps under institutional auspices--technical assistance and consultation can also occur.

Adult educators perceived the problems and challenges affecting adult education both within their country or region and worldwide as environmental, geopolitical, societal, economic, and technological. Problems directly affecting adult education included the familiar problems of marginality and pressures to emphasize training. Exchange of information and experience was seen as ways adult educators can respond proactively to the problems and challenges. Besides promoting recognition of adult education as a means of addressing such problems and challenges--both nationally and internationally--formal professional adult education association-to-association cooperation could also sponsor large scale cross-cultural, comparative surveys of adult education systems.

Now that Phase II has been completed, the researcher now plans to take the most salient responses reported above into account while compiling the Phase III questionnaire. That instrument will be sent to the original 235 respondents in 35 countries. Due to its much diminished and more manageable length, a much higher rate of response is anticipated. In addition to more precise rank ordering of the most and the least desirable item choices, respondents will have the opportunity to offer suggestions as to how certain informal exchange and cooperation activities as well as formal association policy options may best be carried out.

REFERENCES

Cookson, P. S. (1984). Directory of International Adult Education Exchange and Cooperation. Vancouver: Adult Education Research Centre University of British Columbia, 1984.

Jillson, A. (1975). "The National Drug Abuse Policy Delphi: Progress Report and Findings to Date" in H.A. Linstone and M. Turoff (eds.). The Delphi Method: Techniques and Applications. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, pp. 17-36.

Cookson, P. S. (1986). "Charting the Unknown: Delphi and Policy Delphi Strategies for International Co-operation," International Journal of Lifelong Education, 5, 1, pp. 3-13.

TITLE: **Assessing the Future of Urban Extension Education through Focus Group Interviews**

PRESENTED BY: Harlan G. Copeland, Associate Professor, Graduate Program in Adult Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455, U.S.A., and

Shirley L. Barber, Professor and County Extension Agent, Ramsey County Extension Service, 2020 White Bear Avenue, St. Paul, Minnesota, 55109, U.S.A.

ABSTRACT: Formerly, the Ramsey County (Minnesota) Extension Service provided educational programs to rural audiences; today, the county includes 265,000 urban and 207,000 suburban residents. Focus Group interviews were used to listen to county citizens, government and agency representatives discuss their concerns. The findings pertained to: (1) assessment of existing programs, (2) image and identity, (3) program implications for the future, and (4) staffing considerations.

Background and Purpose of the Study

The Agricultural (Cooperative) Extension Service has, since 1914, provided educational programs pertaining to agricultural production and families in rural America. Funding for Extension programs in all counties has been provided by the federal government (Smith-Lever Act of 1914), state legislatures, and county government officials. Today, the population growth is occurring in the urban areas of the formerly considered rural states such as Minnesota; more than 50 percent of Minnesota's 4.2 million residents live in the seven county metropolitan area including St. Paul and Minneapolis.

An interest in how the Ramsey County (Minnesota) Extension Service could offer unique educational programs to urban and suburban residents prompted this effort to listen to county citizens, agency and government representatives discuss their concerns. Ramsey County includes the city of St. Paul (population 265,000) and 16 suburban communities with an additional population of 207,000. The Ramsey County Board of Commissioners, faced with allocation of scarce public resources, was concerned about program visibility and focus. While the approximate $200,000 allocation from county funds represented less than one percent of the total county budget, there were many needs competing for county tax dollars in an urban/suburban setting. The Minnesota Extension Service of the University of Minnesota was considering structural changes in the state and county organizaiton and moving toward educational programs based on "issues." Thus, information was desired in three general areas: (1) the relevance and appropriateness of current programming; (2) the perceived image of the Ramsey County Extension Service; and (3) the acceptability of proposed organizational and staffing changes.

Focus Group Interviews

A popular and widely used tool in marketing research (Levy, 1979), focus group interviews are increasingly being used as a needs assessment strategy in adult education. The focus group interview can elicit the opinions, attitudes and perceptions of people which an educational agency seeks to serve. Krueger (1986, p. 2) states that the focus group interview "is particularly effective in providing background information as to why people think or feel the way they do."

Focus groups interviews are organized group discussions which are focused around a single theme. A typical interview consists of a series of group interviews, usually a minimum of three different groups and each group consisting of eight to ten people. The moderator/discussion leader introduces the topic of concern and then follows a predetermined questioning route. The group discusses the questions and shares insights and ideas. The moderator is careful to probe and seek additional clarification of certain responses. The entire group interview usually lasts less than two hours. The discussion is typically audio tape recorded and used with moderator notes for later, more careful analysis. The responses in each interview are then compared and attention is placed on identification of patterns of responses among the various groups. Levy (1979, p. 34) notes that:

> The basic idea of the focus group is a simple one. A group of people is brought to discuss some certain topics, commonly for 1 to 2 hours. The interviewer--leader, moderator--raises various issues, focusing the discussion on matters of interest to the researcher (and the client) in accordance with an outline or general guide.

Focus group interviews are a means of getting information. The function of the group is to provide that information and not to plan, vote or advise. Emphasis is not on consensus but on the diversity and range of opinions of individuals within the group.

To accomplish the task, Krueger's (1986) "Nine Step Process" which required decisions about the purpose and whom to study, data users, a data collection plan and needed resources, the interview questions, moderating the group interview, selection of group participants, conducting the interviews, analyzing the data, and reporting the data was used.

Development of the Interview Questions

Three groups of information users were identified: (1) the Ramsey County Extension Committee, (2) the Ramsey County Commissioners, and (3) Minnesota Extension Service administrators. Informational interviews were conducted with five members of the Extension Committee, with two County Commissioners and with one Minnesota Extension Service administrator. Suggestions were sought regarding what questions should be asked, the timing of the interviews, and who should participate in the interviews.

Six themes emerged for focus group interview questions:

1. Program Focus--determining relevance and appropriateness of current programs and directions for the future.
2. Image of the Extension Service with Urban/Suburban Residents--determining the presence of Extension in the county including facilities and location.
3. Structure--determining reactions to the restructuring plan and changes in roles and relationships proposed by the Minnesota Extension Service.
4. Staffing--determining reactions to the proposed sharing (clustering of Extension staff among seven metropolitan area counties.
5. Funding--determining the perceptions of cost effectiveness and potential for funding partnerships for Extension programs.

6. Uniqueness--determining what Extension does best, what is unique; determining the existence for potential program duplication.

The timing of the project was not a concern, but the information was desired as soon as feasible in order to assist with the implementation of a new county extension director role.

Four types of people were identified as sources of information about perceptions of current Extension programs and of future directions:

1. Users of Extension programs (including volunteers who assist with the delivery of educational activities).
2. Potential users of Extension programs (i.e., current non-users).
3. Representatives from public and private agencies who have cooperated in the past with Extension programs or could in the future.
4. Ramsey County Extension Service professional and support staff.

Both broad and narrow questions were developed and reviewed by the County Extension Committee members and by an evaluation specialist with the Minnesota Extension Service. Three sets of appropriate questions were developed (see Copeland and Barber, 1987, Appendix II).

Selection of Focus Group Interview Participants

Recommendations for participants were requested from the County Commissioners, the County Extension Committee members, and the County Extension staff. Sixty-six of the 73 recommended participants accepted the opportunity to participate. Several individuals changed appointments in order to participate. Three current program users declined due to scheduling conflicts and two non-users also declined--one for lack of transportation (and not desiring a ride when offered) and one who indicated being shy about speaking up in a group meeting. One private agency representative declined citing the reason of "being too extended" and one public agency representative failed to return the telephone call.

All potential participants were called two to seven days prior to the actual group session in which they participated. Two individuals telephoned all potential participants using a prescribed telephone procedure.

Eight focus group interviews were scheduled. There were two groups of current Extension volunteers and program users, two groups of public and private agency and county government representatives, two groups of Extension potential users/non-users, one mixed group of current Extension users and agency representatives, and one group of current county Extension professional and support staff. The groups included 18 males and 48 females with ages ranging from a recent high school graduate to retirees.

Data Collection

The interviews were held at "neutral" sites that allowed for audio tape recording. Rides were provided for those requesting this assistance.

Each session was planned for 60 to 90 minutes. Light refreshments were provided at each session.

Each participant came knowing that the session would be audio taped and that facilitators would be taking notes during the session. Participants were informed that confidentiality of individual responses would be protected in the final written report.

All eight sessions were moderated by the senior investigator; he had no official connection with the county Extension program, and was introduced to the interview participants as such. Only four of 66 participants personally knew the moderator. The second investigator served as assistant moderator for all eight sessions. While a member of the county Extension staff, she served as a recorder only and did not enter into any of the group discussions.

Table name cards were in place as participants arrived. The group facilitator opened each session with a standardized welcome (see Copeland and Barber, 1987, Appendix II) followed by self-introductions by participants.

At the conclusion of each session, complimentary gifts were distributed. The gifts included a complimentary drawing for a Christmas tree, a package provided by a corporation, and a sample packet of Extension publications.

The data were collected during a two-week period in late January-early February, 1987.

Data Analysis and Reporting

Following the interviews, the audio tapes for each session were transcribed into verbatim transcripts. (This consumed approximately 107 hours of secretarial time.)

The transcript data and notes were analyzed for general themes pertaining to image, assessment of existing programs, future program directions, program focus, and staffing considerations. These themes were subsequently examined for sub-points.

Quotations from participants were used to illustrate the findings and conclusions of the study. Quotations were reported verbatim when possible. Minor editing was used to reduce the length of statements. Care was exercised to avoid altering the intended meaning of the participant.

Preliminary oral and written summary reports were shared with the County Extension Committee and the Minnesota Extension Service Executive Administrative Committee by the investigators. A final oral report was given to the County Commissioners by the county Extension director.

The written report was presented in three ways: (1) An executive Summary of the findings and recommendations, (2) the detailed findings and conclusions which were highlighted in bold type face, and (3) the detailed evidence (i.e., the observations and opinions) provided by the participants which was indented.

Findings and Conclusions

The following perceptions were offered by the focus group participants:

Assessment of Existing Programs.

1. Accessability by adults and youth to programs was a strength.
2. Extension is good at providing diverse programs that meet changing needs of people.
3. Extension provides quality educational programs.
4. Extension staff are good at teaching and providing information.
5. The materials and information are current, research based, and available.
6. The opportunities for cross-cultural, intergenerational learning are valued.
7. Extension programs provide a unique access to University sources.
8. Extension provides low cost, if not free, effective programs.
9. Extension serves people in different areas of their lives and during all stages of their life span.

10. Extension (staff) provides practical education that helps consumers make wise decisions.
11. The county Extension program offers innovative activities/ programs.
12. Extension staff are effective with low income and minority families.
13. Extension programs are effective in developing leadership abilities of participants and volunteer leaders and teachers.
14. Current Extension programs in consumer education, youth development, nutrition, horticulture, and home economics were considered effective and valued.

Image and Identity.

1. The general public does not know about the Extension Service.
2. When people do know about it, Extension has a rural image among urban and suburban residents.
3. The typical urban/suburban resident is not aware of the range of programming that is available because of the image he/she has.
4. The county fair connotes a rural and agricultural image.
5. The image of Extension among program users, while not limited to agriculture and rural, was fragmented; people intensely involved in one program were unaware of other Extension programs.
6. The name (Agricultural Extension Service), the facility (a barn), the billboard (for the County Fair)--all connote "rural."
7. Some agency staff were not aware how to access the agency; some were only partially aware of how Extension could be a resource to them.
8. Knowledge of Extension comes from direct personal involvement with the agency rather than from publicity of agency outreach.
9. Public officials have a limited view of Extension and its contribution to the county and city.

Future Program Directions.

1. The linkage with the University of Minnesotea (for research-based information) should continue.
2. Cooperation among agencies (in program delivery) was not only desirable but essential for the future.
3. Extension has a record of cooperative programming that is viewed positively.
4. Duplication of other agencies' programs should be avoided; however, there is a place for some "healthy duplication," and agencies need to distinguish between "similarities" and "duplication."
5. There was a high level of interest among agency representatives in inter-agency cooperation and building "partnerships."
6. Problems of "turf protection" and "agency recognition" among agencies need to be recognized and resolved for cooperation to result.
7. The Extension Service and public school community education should develop more program partnerships in suburban areas.
8. Current Extension programs were considered relevant and valuable; they should be continued and expanded with the consideration of some identified concerns.
9. Important audiences for Extension to reach include: the young, working non-traditional family; un-reached youth; retired adults; ethnic and minority audiences; parents; single people; and agency staff members.

10. Extension should continue to serve middle class families in the areas of basic family living, life management, leadership development, and effective decision making.
11. The Extension program emphasis should address issues related to human development, community leadership, and environment and natural resources; a lower priority should be given to economic development.

Program Focus.

1. The Ramsey County Extension program lacks a clear program focus.
2. Extension should focus on education rather than service.
3. Extension should focus on urban needs and problems.
4. Extension should focus on families and youth, volunteer development and leadership development.
5. Extension should focus on agency cooperation and referral.
6. Extension should focus on doing the current programs they do well.
7. Extension should develop a marketing plan to inform the public and agency personnel about Extension.
8. Extension needs to focus on how to handle the dilemma of a desired increased visibility and serving urban needs with a currently over-extended staff working with established programs which are valued by the clientele served.

Funding.

1. The value of Extension programs in problem prevention, in supplementing services of agencies, and in recruiting donated services from volunteers should be recognized.
2. People have little understanding of Extension program costs.
3. Cost effectiveness is becoming an important criterion in funding public programs such as Extension.
4. The measurement of Extension program effectiveness, while needed, is difficult to do.
5. Those who allocate scarce public resources must be kept informed.

Staff Considerations.

1. The Extension staff received a very positive image in terms of effectiveness, availability, innovativeness.
2. Extension needs additional staff; the current staff was seen as being very much overextended.
3. Vacant staff positions that remain unfilled present programming problems.
4. More volunteers should be utilized by Extension; however, competition for volunteers is increasing, and it is becoming increasingly difficult to recruit volunteers.
5. The Extension volunteer staff expressed a strong need for "the right of access" to the Extension staff member coordinating the volunteer's program; reservations were expressed about sharing Extension staff members across two or more counties.
6. Extension needs to resolve the dilemma of meeting increased programming expectations and requests from a diverse clientele while facing increased competition for volunteers with limited staff time for recruitment, development, and support of volunteers.

Bibliography

Copeland, Harlan G. and Barber, Shirley L. Urban Extension: A Look to the Future. St. Paul, MN: Ramsey County Extension Service, July, 1987. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 285 004)

Krueger, Richard A. Focus Group Interviewing. St. Paul, MN: Department of Vocational Education, University of MInnesota, July, 1986.

THE IMPORTANCE OF PARTICIPANT INPUT IN PROGRAM PLANNING: TESTING A MYTH?*

Bradley C.Courtenay, University of Georgia Gregory W. Arnold, Clayton State

Abstract

Empirical studies of participant input in planning as a factor in achievement and satisfaction differences indicate conflicting findings. This two-phased study extended the research design of earlier studies by using a control, experimental, and placebo group and examined the influence of classroom climate on achievement and satisfaction. Results indicate participant planning may influence achievement and classroom climate may account for satisfaction differences.

Problem

Models of program development suggest that potential participants should be involved in planning their learning experiences (Sork and Buskey, 1986). Some adult education textbook authors maintain and some simply imply that participant input in planning learning experiences enhances achievement and satisfaction with the learning experience. (cf. Knowles, 1980). However, several empirical adult education studies investigating the effects of participation in planning indicate mixed results. (Arnold, 1985). When the experimental designs of earlier studies are compared, posttest measures emerge as the primary source of achievement. Rosenblum (1982) did use a pretest/posttest design with control and experimental groups and found no evidence of significant differences when participants in program planning were compared to non-participants in program planning. Also, all of the earlier studies of adult participant input in program planning focus only on the planning variable. However, the recent work of Darkenwald (1987) on the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (ACES) suggests that the classroom climate or "personality" of the group may be a factor in achievement and satisfaction differences.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to build on previous research on participant input in program planning by first, adding a placebo group to the design, and, second by examining the influence of classroom climate on achievement and satisfaction. Two major hypotheses were the focus on the study:

a. Achievement and satisfaction scores of participants will differ significantly between participants who help plan their learning experience and participants who have no input in planning their learning experience; and

b. Achievement and satisfaction scores will be significantly different for participants in varied classroom climates.

---

*The authors wish to acknowledge, with appreciation, the assistance of Ms. Geraldine Jackson-White in gathering the data in phase two of the study.

Methodology

Phase One

The sample for the first phase included three non-credit adult computer literacy classes at a two-year college. Participants were assigned to one of three computer literacy courses: Experimental Group (n = 12), Placebo Group (n=12) and Control Group (n=9). All three groups received 10 hours of instruction in computer literacy by the same instructor and during the same time period. Also, all participants completed pre-and-post-test versions of the Minnesota Computer Literacy and Awareness Assessment, Form 1 (Anderson, Klassen, Krohn, and Smith-Cunnien, 1982), the Srole Anomia Scale, the Dogmatism Scale (Rokeach, 1960) and a post-course satisfaction scale developed by Urdang (1982). Variability among the three groups was limited to input in planning the course. The Experimental Group was asked to provide input in planning the course. The Placebo Group was asked to brainstorm about future activities for the two year college. The Control Group did not participate in planning the course. The data for Phase One were analyzed by the analysis of variance subroutine of the General Linear Model. The Scheffe procedure was employed to determine differences among means.

Phase Two

Two groups (n=10, n=9) of individuals enrolled in a computer literacy course at a two-year college comprised the sample for Phase Two. All participants completed pre-and-post tests of course content, all participants completed the Adult Classroom Environment Scale (Darkenwald, 1979), and all participants completed The Urdang satisfaction scale. The instructor and the course content were common for both groups. Additionally, both groups provided input in planning the course. Observers were present in both groups, using the Flander's (1970) Interaction Analysis Observation procedure as a second measure of classroom climate. As a result of insignificant results in Phase One, the anomia and dogmatism scales were not used in Phase Two. T-Tests and analysis of variance were used to analyze the data in Phase Two.

The ACES, the major determinant of classroom climate, is a paper-and-pencil form consisting of 49 items providing a four-point Likert response to each item. The instrument, developed by Darkenwald (1979) and theoretically emerging from the work of Moos (1979), has seven subscales: (1) Involvement - "students are satisfied with class and participate actively and attentively in activities"; (2) Affiliation - "students like and interact positively with each other"; (3) Teacher Support - "help, encouragement, concern and friendship teacher directs towards students"; (4) Task Orientation - "students and teacher maintain focus on task and value achievement"; (5) Personal Goal Attainment - "teacher is flexible, providing opportunities for students to pursue their individual interests"; (6) Organization and Clarity - "class activities are clear and well organized"; and (7) Student Influence - "teacher is learner-centered and allows students to participate in course planning decisions." (p. 130).

Findings

For Phase 1 of this study the ANOVA and Scheffe test in Table 1 reflect significant differences between the pre-and-post-test achievement mean scores for the placebo and no-planning groups. No significant differences are noted for the experimental group. Also, no significant differences emerged among the satisfaction scores for the three groups.

Table 1

Summary Table of the Analysis of Variance for Achievement by Groups--Phase 1

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Probability
Between	2	10493.73	5246.86	3.91	0.031*
Within	30	40300.66	1343.35		
Total	32	50794.40			

*p<.05

Scheffe's Option of Comparison of Variance in Difference

Group	Difference
Group 1 and Group 2	7.23
Group 1 and Group 3	6.98
Group 2 and Group 3	14.21*

*p<.05

Although the collection of qualitative data was not conceived in the research design for Phase 1, the instructor did observe distinct differences among the classroom climates of the groups. The experimental group seemed to respond formally to the instructor until the very end of the first instructional session; the placebo group seemed to have gained rapport very early, calling the instructor by his first name and inviting him to coffee at the first break; and the control group seemed openly hostile initially and reserved until midpoint of the second session, and throughout the course engaged in only minimal questioning or discussion. Those observations led the researchers to the speculation that classroom climate may be more of a factor of achievement and satisfaction differences than participant input in planning.

Regarding achievement, Table 2 reveals that both groups in Phase 2 experienced significant gains, especially the second group (p=.002); however, significant differences in achievement are not indicated between groups. On the other hand, an examination of the t-test results in Table 3 shows that significant differences for course satisfaction are evident between the groups, with Group 2 reflecting the higher satisfaction mean score.

Table 2

Two-Sample T-Tests of Achievement--Phase 2

Within Groups	N	Pretest M	Posttest M	Pretest SD	Posttest SD	t	p
1	10	80.4	86.8	9.1	6.7	-2.6	.03
2	9	78.2	89.8	7.7	3.8	-4.4	.002

Between Groups	N	Pretest M	Pretest SD	t	p	Postest M	Postest SD	t	p
	19	79.4	8.4	.56	.58	8.82	5.6	-1.20	.25

Table 3

Two Sample T-Tests of Satisfaction--Phase 2

Group	N	M	SD	t	p
1	10	75.6	11.6	-2.48	.028
2	9	85.7	5.1		

Table 4 provides t-tests results to determine the extent to which the groups differed on classroom climate. While the total scale scores were not significantly different between the groups, the Involvement and Task Orientation subscale scores do differ significantly. The Involvement t-test score means Group 2 was more satisfied with the course, which may support the finding noted above in Table 3, and members of Group 2 participated actively and attentively in activities. On Task Orientation, participants in Group 2 felt the class maintained focus on task orientation and value achievement. These two subscale findings are made more interesting by the results of the Flander's Interaction Observation Analysis. The two observers found and confirmed with the observations of the instructor, that Group 2 participants had more verbal interaction scores with each other and the instructor, and they exhibited greater task orientation and achievement value by returning to the computer lab at a rate of 5 to 1 to enhance the lectures.

Table 4

Two Sample T-Tests of Classroom Climate--Phase 2
(t-values only)

	Scale	I	A	TS	TO	PG	O	SI
Between Groups	-1.58	-2.05*	-1.14	-1.54	-2.37*	-.45	-.95	-.28

*p<.05

Isolation of the participant input in planning variable is also evident from Table 4. No significant difference is indicated between groups on Student Influence, the extent to which students help plan the course.

Conclusions

The results of Phase 1 of this study support earlier investigations that found differences in achievement when participants planned learning experiences; the findings are not similar to those studies that found differences in satisfaction with participant planning present. On the other hand, use of the placebo group in Phase 1 provides an understanding of the subtleties of the participation in planning variable. The insignificant differences between the experimental and placebo groups may suggest that participation in planning is of less importance than the opportunity to have input, even if it is not input in planning the learning experience. Taken a step further, participants' achievement and satisfaction might be enhanced more by the opportunity for involvement in the actual learning experience than in planning the learning experience. Thus, practitioners might consider expending more energy on the classroom climate as they plan learning experiences.

Phase 2 of the study controlled participant input in planning and focused on the contribution of the classroom climate. Collectively, the individual findings suggest a favorable consideration of the hypothesis that classroom climate may influence course satisfaction. There were significant differences between the two groups on satisfaction and classroom climate with Group 2 being the highest for both variables. Group 2 scores were also significantly higher on the Involvement and Task Orientation subscales of the ACES. The qualitative observations supported the general differences between the two groups and the specific variations in interaction among the group members and the instructor and in commitment to the task.

The absence of significant differences in achievement is not consistent with those studies that have examined classroom climate in elementary and secondary settings. (Chavez, 1984). While this study did not detect significant differences in achievement between groups, the achievement mean gain for Group 2 was highly significant (p=.002), at least suggesting a tendency toward a noteworthy difference. Additional research with adult groups is necessary to better understand classroom climate and achievement for the non-child and adolescent learner. Future studies should also consider the "group" as a variable. Differences may be due to the personal characteristics of the group members, including psychosocial and economic variables.

Other research is also suggested by the results of this study:

(1) Replication studies using a placebo group to determine if planning the learning experience or simply "becoming a group" is related to achievement and satisfaction.

(2) Investigations using larger samples and different course content and instructional methods.

(3) Investigations employing different models of participant input in planning: representatives of the learners, the learners at some time period before the learning event, or learners at the first session of the learning event.

(4) Considerable inquiry into the contributions of the classroom climate variable with larger samples of adults, in a variety of settings, and in a variety of content areas.

(5) Studies that utilize the ACES to confirm its predictive ability. Based on the results of this study, involvement of participants in the learning experience and commitment to task assignments might predict participant satisfaction with a learning event. But other subscales, given considerably more research, may emerge as stronger predictors of satisfaction and achievement.

References

Anderson, R.E., Klassen, D.L., Krohn, K.R., & Smith-Cunnien, P. (1982). Assessing computer literacy. St. Paul, MN: The Minnesota Educational Computing Consortium:

Arnold, G.W. (1985). Variables which may effect participant input in program planning as measured by achievement or satisfaction. (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Georgia, 1985). Dissertation Abstracts International, 46, 1807A.

Chavez, R.C. (1984). The use of high-inference measures to study classroom climate: A review. Review of Educational Research, 54 (2), 237-261.

Darkenwald, G.G. (1987). Assessing the social environment of adult classes. Studies in the Education of Adults (UK), 18 (2), 127-136.

Flanders, N.A. (1970). Analyzing teacher behavior. New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Knowles, M.S. (1980). The modern practice of adult education. Revised and updated. New York: Cambridge.

Moos, R. (1979). Evaluating educational environments. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Rokeach, M. (1960). The open and closed mind. New York: Basic Books, Inc.

Rosenblum, S. (1982). The effects of adult learner participation in course planning on achievement and satisfaction. (Doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University, 1982). Dissertation Abstracts International, 43, 2307A.

Sork, T.J., & Buskey, J.H. (1986). A descriptive and evaluative analysis of program planning literature, 1950-1983. Adult Education Quarterly, 36 (2), 86-96.

Urdang, M.S. (1982). A model of inservice-program characteristics and participant attitudes. Dissertation Abstracts International, 43, 768A.

REVISION OF SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING MODELS IN THE LIGHT OF SELF-TAUGHT ADULTS' LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Claudia Danis, Professor, University of Montreal

Abstract: The purpose of the present research was to revise three prevailing self-directed learning models in the light of the learning experiences of self-taught adults who have learned successfully in a natural societal setting.

Purpose: Most adult education practitioners and researchers have noticed the 1980's emphasis on self-directed learning. Many practitioners are increasingly emphasizing the teaching of self-directed learning strategies and skills, in a learning how to learn perspective (Smith & Haverkamp, 1977), while many researchers are increasingly focusing on the study of adult learning processes which imply self-instruction (Penland, 1981; Kasworm, 1983b). From a theory-building perspective, the study of self-directed learning provides new insights into this simultaneous instruction - learning phenomenon and may consequently lead to the elaboration of more powerful learning and instructional theories. In the last years, a multiplicity of theoretical constructs were proposed as hypothesized representations or models of the self-directed learning process, each model concentrating on particular aspects, thus offering but partial explanations of the phenomenon (de Winter Hebron, 1983). The need for empirical verification of these models has already been pointed out (Penland, 1981; Kasworm, 1983b). One innovative way of verifying the prevailing self-directed learning models has consisted in comparing these models' proposed approaches to this particular learning process with successful self-taught adults' self-perceived approaches to the same learning process. The purpose of the present study was to revise three such prevailing self-directed learning models in the light of the learning experiences of self-taught adults who have learned successfully in a natural societal setting.

Conceptual Framework: Stemming from current approaches to adult learning, the three self-directed learning models which were revised are the following: I-Tough's Management Model (1975), II-Kasworm's Developmental Model (1983a; 1983b), and III-Martin's Information-Processing Model (1984). The conceptual framework's dimensions were derived from the studied models' main elements. These dimensions are the following: 1)overall perspective of the learning process, 2)phasing and syntax, 3)learning contents, 4)learner characteristics, and 5)learning conditions/context.

Method: The methodology comprised three phases. In the first phase, self-directed learning models explicitly proposed in the literature were identified. Three of these were considered to be most representative of the current approaches to self-directed learning and were analyzed in further details. Subsequently, the identified dimensions constituted the study's conceptual framework. In the second phase, a content analysis of the description of the learning experiences of ten self-taught adults was carried out in the light of the framework's specified dimensions. In the third phase, a comparative analysis of each of the three models and of the self-taught adults' learning experiences was carried out.

Given the exploratory nature of the study, only ten self-taught adults' learning experiences were studied. All ten subjects -five men and five women- had been engaged in long-term learning activities (average: 14 years), had had relatively little schooling (average: 12 years), and were socially recognized as experts in their respective fields of learning.

Findings: A systematic revision of the models revealed significant similarities and differences between the authors' points of view and the self-taught adults' points of view.

I-Tough's Management Model (1975):

1)Overall perspective of the learning process: Tough's model focuses on the steps and the corresponding skills that are related to the planning, implementation, and evaluation of self-directed learning projects (Tough, 1975; Kasworm, 1983b). Planning is as crucial here as learning itself (de Winter Hebron, 1983), and the setting of goals/objectives -an area of most difficulty to adult learners and managers (Luke, 1981)- is an essential part of the underlying decision-making process. Detailed cognitive and affective processes have been explicitly excluded (de Winter Hebron, 1983). The self-taught adults studied in the present research do not seem to approach learning from a managerial point of view which corresponds much more with the formal teaching process (Mocker & Spear, 1982). These self-taught adults, indeed, did little or no planning at all and did not formulate explicit goals or objectives.

2)Phasing and Syntax: The learning project represents a detailed series of intended learning episodes during which the learner alternates, in a cyclic manner, between acquiring information/skill and using this information/skill (de Winter Hebron, 1983). The studied self-taught adults did not have a unique learning project; they rather seemed to have one long-term "megaproject" which contained various, heterogeneous, relatively short-term projects. No fixed cyclic phases or steps were discernible.

3)Learning contents: Tough's model proposes a series of steps and skills which would apply to any type of learning content. The author has mostly studied learning contents related to immediate problems or tasks. The studied self-taught adults' steps or processes varied according to the nature of their respective learning contents.

4)Learner characteristics: Tough's model is thought to apply to the adult learner in general. However, with regard to their learning processes, the respondents displayed important differences mostly related to their age, personality traits, and learning styles.

5)Learning conditions/context: Tough's model takes mostly into account the physical learning conditions and the resources/materials that are provided by the environment. The respondents also do. But the latter emphasize the importance of contextual "triggering events"(cf. Mocker & Spear, 1981) and interaction between their sociocultural context and their learning contents and formats.

II-Kasworm's Developmental Model (1983a; 1983b):

1)Overall perspective of the learning process: Opposed to the uni-dimensional models which represent self-directed learning as a linear process composed of single unit behaviors, Kasworm rather suggests a multi-dimensional developmental paradigm which integrates behavior, affect, and cognition. In doing so, the author is mostly influenced by such notions as Penland's search for a theoretical base related to future research into self-directed learning (1981), Flavell's metacognition and cognitive monitoring (1979), Perry's intellectual and ethical development (1981), and Mezirow's perspective transformation (1981). The self-taught adults' learning experiences which were studied in the present research seem to confirm the integration of the same three dimensions: behavior, affect, and cognition. However, other essential dimensions which were emphasized by the respondents -such as the learning content itself, and the social and learning context- are absent from this model. Furthermore, the theoretical link between the development of the "self" and one particular self-instructional mode (self-directed learning" may prove to be misleading.

2)Phasing and Syntax: The three-dimensional model describes an evolving process which incorporates (a) specific levels of behavior/skill to engage and complete the action of self-directed learning; (b) specific levels of cognitive complexity linked to the specific nature of acts of learning; (c) specific levels of affective/value orientation towards knowledge and learning actions (1983b). The levels indicate a qualitative, hierarchical, invariant progression towards an increasing complexity. Movement from one level to the next implies a paradigm shift, a "perspective transformation". The respondents' learning experiences revealed a certain evolution mostly regarding their behavior/skills and regarding their affective/value orientations. -Was this qualitative evolution due to their long-term self-directed learning process or simply to their normal aging process?- With regard to their learning behaviors/skills, the identified evolution corresponded with a progression and specialization related to their learning contents and learning resources. With regard to their affective orientation, the evolution corresponded mostly with the respondents' increased motivation, pleasure, interest, and the development of personality traits such as humour, flexibility, patience, self-control, etc. Finally, a certain evolution regarding some of the respondents' value orientation was noticed: numerous reflections related to humanity, human beings in general, and an increasing need for social commitment. According to the studied learning experiences, the passage from one level to the next did not seem to be necessarily linked to a "perspective transformation". Finally, each dimension and each level of the proposed model do not seem operational enough yet to allow researchers to identify specific, concrete corresponding elements.

3)Learning contents: Kasworm's model does not directly incorporate the learning content as one of its components, while the studied self-taught adults emphasize the dynamic link between themselves and the nature of their respective learning contents.

4)Learner characteristics: Kasworm's model is based on the qualitative development of affective, cognitive and behavioral characteristics of the learner. The respondents emphasize some of the model's characteristics, but also emphasize other personal characteristics such as the fact of being a social agent, etc.

5)Learning conditions/context: The author's model does not focus on the external learning conditions of the evolving adults. Yet, the respondents emphasize their interaction with their sociocultural context, among other things.

III-Martin's Information-Processing Model (1984):

1)Overall perspective of the learning process: Martin presents an initial theory of self-instruction which focuses on cognitive schemata, organized and operating within an information-processing approach. Schemata are defined as hypothetical descriptions of what information is and how it can be perceived, transformed, learned, and used by an individual. The two most relevant systems are the memory system (storage of long-term and short-term memory), and the processing system (information manipulated by cognitive processes). The author is influenced by much of the existing knowledge found in the areas of cognitive and instructional psychology. The studied self-taught adults do not describe their learning process from such a formal, instructional point of view. However, they constantly perceive, transform, learn, and use information, in a more or less conscious and efficient way.

2)Phasing and Syntax: Martin's model describes a process of reciprocation between three schemata levels, two types of knowledge and an everchanging situational information. The three levels of schemata are organized in a hierarchical network. Level 1 represents the seven major procedural phases of the self-instructional process: 1.goal setting, 2.creating information structures, 3.preassessing, 4.mapping task domains and objectives, 5. planning, 6.maintaining action, 7.evaluating. Level 2 represents the executive tasks corresponding to each one of the seven phases of Level 1. Level 3 represents the metacognitive processes/operations involved in cognitively guiding each of the executive tasks of level 2. Input from three primary sources is required in order to instantiate these schemata: (a)declarative knowledge (substantive information), (b)procedural knowledge (self-instructional strategies/skills), and (c) situational information (context). Some procedural phases are found in the descriptions of the studied learning experiences, but they do not seem to correspond to most of the model's process. Phases 1, 3, 4, and 5 are absent. The model's executive tasks which correspond to phases 2 and 6 are not found or are not emphasized in the studied learning experiences. The two types of knowledge are mentioned and the interaction with contextual information is emphasized by the studied self-taught adults. Metacognitive manifestations do not seem to limit themselves to specific tasks.

3)Learning contents: The learning contents are represented as two types of information to be processed by the individual. These two types of information are mentioned by the studied self-taught adults.

4)Learner characteristics: Characteristics which are not related to the "human information processing system" are absent from this model. However, the studied self-taught adults emphasize various personal and sociocultural characteristics which seem to have a decisive influence on their learning process.

5)Learning conditions/context: The context is represented only as an information provider. The studied self-taught adults emphasize many other important elements provided by their immediate and social contexts.

Conclusion: Each of the studied models offers an interesting and complementary perspective with regard to our understanding of the self-directed learning process -or processes.

Priority may have to be given to researches related to the empirical verification of these prevailing models.

References:

de Winter Hebron, C. (1983). Can we make sense of learning theory?. Higher Education, 12, 443-462.

Kasworm, C. (1983a). Towards a paradigm of developmental levels of self-directed learning. Paper presented at the American Education Research Conference, Montreal, Canada, April.

Kasworm, C. (1983b). Self-directed learning and lifespan development. International Journal of Lifelong Education, 2(1), 29-46.

Luke, R.A. (1981). Managing as learning. Training and Development Journal, 35(8), 24-30.

Martin, J. (1984). Toward a cognitive schemata theory of self-instruction. Instructional Science, 13, 159-180.

Mocker, D.W. & Spear, G.E. (1981). The organizing circumstance: Environmental determinants in self-directed learning. Missouri University, Kansas City: Center for Resource Development in Adult Education.

Mocker, D.W. & Spear, G.E. (1982). Lifelong learning: formal, non formal, informal, and self-directed. Information series no. 241. Columbus, OH: The ERIC Clearinghouse on adult, career, and vocational education - Ohio State University.

Penland, P.R. (1981). Towards self-directed learning theory. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Adult Education Association, October 30th. ERIC Document: ED 209 475.

Smith, R.M. & Haverkamp, K.K. (1977). Toward a theory of learning how to learn. Adult Education, XXVIII, 3-21.

Tough, A. (1975). The adult's learning projects. Research in Education Series No. 1, Toronto: The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE).

Comparison of Deterrents to Adult Education Participation in Britain and the United States

Gordon G. Darkenwald
Rutgers University

Abstract

An earlier investigation of deterrents to participation conducted in the U.S. was replicated in Britain. The replication addressed the cross-national comparability of the magnitude of individual deterrent variables, deterrent factor structures, and relationships between sample characteristics and factor scores. The British and American findings were generally comparable.

Introduction

Although a large body of factor-analytic research has accumulated over the years on what impels participation behavior, only recently have studies of comparable sophistication examined what deters it. This gap in our knowledge base is particularly serious in that the construct of deterrent or 'barrier' occupies a central place in theories of adult education participation. Although motivational orientation studies have been cross-culturally replicated many times (thus establishing the extent to which U.S. findings can be generalized), the present inquiry was the first to examine deterrents to participation from a comparative perspective.

The investigator undertook the replication in the spring of 1987 during a year-long stay in Britain as a Fulbright Senior Scholar. The U.S. study, titled 'Factor Structure of Deterrents to Public Participation in Adult Education', had, as noted, already been conducted; it was published in 1985 (Darkenwald and Valentine). Since the U.S. report is readily available, the present paper focuses on the process of replicating the research in Britain and, of course, on a comparison of the key findings.

The goals of the research, as stated in the Abstract, imply its overarching purpose, namely, to establish the extent to which the U.S. findings are generalizable to Britain and to suggest interpretations of significant discrepancies.

Methodology

The investigator made every effort to adhere to the canons of comparative quantitative inquiry, most notably to the criteria of cross-cultural equivalence in concepts and measures as explicated by Hui and Triandis (1985). However, replications, due to their ex post facto nature, preclude strict compliance with these criteria. Instruments need to be re-worded and otherwise modified, samples can be only roughly comparable, and various other controls are simply impossible. Even Hui and Triandis (1985, p.133) concede that the ideal is problematic: 'Precision and meaningfulness of comparison are two basic desiderata that, very often, cannot be maximized at the same time in cross-cultural research'. Making a virtue of necessity, the present research sacrificed precision in the interest of meaningfulness.

Instrumentation

The Deterrents to Participation Scale - Form G (for general public) was used to collect the American data. A full description of the development and psychometric properties of the DPS-G can be found in Darkenwald and Valentine (1985). Briefly, the instrument is a valid and reliable (a = .86) 34-item Likert-type scale designed for self-administration. Before it could be used in Britain, however, modifications were deemed necessary by the investigator and a group of collaborating U.K. scholars. The most important changes were the deletion of five original items (on logical and/or psychometric grounds), the addition of four new items, and the re-wording of seven items. For both versions the respondents are provided with a broad definition of adult education (which includes training), followed by the statement (British version): 'Although not true of everyone, many adults find it hard to participate in adult education activities even though they want to. Take a minute or two and try to think of something - anything at all - that you wanted to learn during the past year, but never did. Then look at the reasons below and decide how important each one was in your decision not to enroll in a class or other educational activity . : .'. The items are then listed (by random assignment) with four response categories ranging from 'Not at all Important' to 'Very Important'. All items were written with the root 'because'. For example, 'Because the course was scheduled at an inconvenient time'. The alpha reliability of the British version was .87.

Sampling and Data Collection

The studies required fairly large, heterogeneous samples of the adult public (that is, persons 18 or older who are not full time students). In both Britain and the United States, market research firms were engaged to draw random samples from defined populations. The population for the U.S. sample was an affluent New Jersey county. For Britain, the sample was randomly selected from the electoral polls of England. Wales and Scotland were excluded due to their cultural and linguistic distinctiveness. The DPS-G questionnaires were mailed with cover letters and stamped, pre-addressed return envelopes. Follow-up was not possible in the U.S. In England, two follow-ups were conducted: a postcard reminder and a second questionnaire. For both studies, as anticipated, response rates were low. In Britain, a sample of 600 yielded 178 usable questionnaires. (NB: this sample was not that employed for my other conference paper). The postal service returned 127 mailings as 'undeliverable'!. The unadjusted response rate (including undeliverables, refusals, deaths, hospitalizations, etc.) was therefore 30%. The U.S. response rate was even lower (215 of 2,000). Bias analysis indicated that in both countries, but less so in Britain, the non-respondents tended to have less formal education and lower incomes than the respondents. Nonetheless, the final samples were reasonably comparable to the general populations. For example, the sex-adjusted average gross annual income for England was £8,268 in April, 1985. Wage inflation was projected at 8% per annum, or £9,580 in April 1987 (Department of Employment, 1986). Of the survey respondents, 29.3% reported annual household incomes between £5,000 and £10,000, and 37.2% between £11,000 and £20,000. In addition, 44.4% of the respondents reported that they held no formal educational qualifications - very close to the national average.

Since the purpose of the present research was not to estimate population parameters, but to explore and compare relationships among certain variables, the low response rates are of little import. Both samples were sufficiently large and heterogeneous for statistical analysis.

Description of Samples

Only a cursory description of the two samples can be given here. The fundamental demographics for England and New Jersey are these. Sex: NJ, 62% female; Eng., 51% female. Age: NJ, mean=43 years; Eng., mean=44 years. Employment status: NJ, 61% employed full time; Eng., 48.5% employed full time. Educational attainment: NJ, 4.7% no credential; Eng., 44.4% no credential; NJ, 32.2% secondary school credential; Eng., 37.4% CSE to GCE A-level secondary school credential; NJ, 9.8% two-year postsecondary credential; Eng., 10.5% two or three year postsecondary credential; NJ, 28.5% first college/university degree; Eng., 5.8% first university degree; NJ, 24.8% postgraduate study or degree; Eng., 2% postgraduate study or degree (NB: at secondary level and below, a simple conclusion would be grossly misleading since British school completers who do not sit for exams receive no credential). Gross family income: due to exchange fluctuations, comparisons are of little utility; however, 39.3% of the NJ sample reported incomes of $45,000 or more (£22,000 at current exchange rates), but only 7.9% of the English sample reported comparable gross income, namely £21,000 or more. The income and educational attainment statistics may strike some as shocking. Nevertheless they reflect the realities: Americans, not only in affluent areas, are much better-educated than Britons (nationally, more that a fourth of U.S. adults have completed a first degree) and earn considerably more money (especially after taxes).

Data Analysis

The British and U.S. data were subjected to the same data analysis procedures. Descriptive statistics, such as means and frequencies, were calculated for all variables. Relationships among non-factorial variables were explored using the Pearson and Spearman (rho) correlation formulas. For both the British and U.S. versions of the DPS-G, principal components factor analysis was employed to extract the initial factors. The Kaiser criterion determined the number of factors retained for rotation. To generate uncorrelated factors with the most interpretable structures, orthogonal rotation (Varimax) was employed to reach a terminal solution. Only those DPS items that had loadings greater than .35 were used to define the final factors. The complete estimation method was utilized to compute factor scores, which were employed in correlational analyzes to explore relationships between respondent characteristics and the deterrent factors. In all cases, the criterion for statistical significance was set at $P \leq .05$.

Findings

Space limitations preclude lengthy tables or a detailed narrative description of the findings. Consequently, only the more important results are reported, with emphasis on the factor analyzes. The following discussion addresses in turn the three research questions stated in the Abstract.

Magnitude of Individual Deterrents

Means were computed for each deterrent item to provide a ranking of their perceived importance. As expected from prior studies employing versions of the DPS (Darkenwald and Valentine, 1985; Hayes and Darkenwald, 1988; Scanlan and Darkenwald, 1984; Weischadle, 1988), the majority of item means were low, ranging between 'Not at All Important' to 'Fairly Important' (that is, between scale values of 1 and 2). This established pattern suggests that a decision not to participate in an organized adult education activity is due either to the combined or synergistic effects of multiple deterrents or the salience of just a very few for particular individuals.

Precise statistical comparisons of mean item ratings were not possible because the original format of the DPS-G was altered for administration in Britain (from a five to a four-point scale). However, a rough comparison is possible if we consider the lowest and the highest rated deterrents included in both versions of the DPS-G. As the data indicate, the differences were pretty much negligible.

For the U.S. sample, the five highest-ranked items were: 'Because the course was scheduled at an inconvenient time'; 'Because I didn't have time for the studying required'; 'Because I didn't think I could attend regularly'; 'Because the course was offered at an inconvenient location' (ranked nine in Britain); and 'Because taking a course would subtract from time with my family' (ranked six in Britain). British respondents ranked the first three deterrents among the five highest. The other two were 'Because of the amount of time needed to finish the course' (ranked six in the U.S.) and 'Because I couldn't afford extra expenses like transport, books, etc.' (ranked 20 in the U.S.). Clearly, only one discrepancy is meaningful - the high British ranking and low U.S. ranking of the 'extra expense' item. The explanation is almost certainly a function of the large income gap between the British and American respondents.

For Britain and the U.S.A. the deterrent items ranked lowest in importance exhibited few discrepancies. The low-rated items concerned health problems, lack of encouragement from friends and family, and competition from younger students.

Factor Analytic Findings

Despite significant modifications made to the version of the DPS-G used in Britain, the factor analytic findings were remarkably similar for the two countries. In brief, the British analysis yielded an additional factor (seven vs. six) and 'broke down' the U.S. factor labelled 'Lack of Confidence' into two more refined factor structures. The seventh factor for the British sample was also in essence a 'break down' of a U.S. factor dubbed 'Personal Problems', which included the family problem items. One U.S. factor, 'Low Personal Priority' was not duplicated in Britain. However, the 'Priority' items did load on appropriate British factors.

In neither country did DPS-G items load on more than one factor and the majority of loadings were high (60 or more). Thus the final solutions, with factorial complexities of zero, met the most rigorous criteria for simple structure. All factors in the two analyzes were conceptually meaningful and readily interpretable. Because the 'content' of the deterrent factors is inherently negative, negative labels were assigned.

Although the factor-analytic findings cannot be presented here, the factor labels provide an indication of the nature of the factor structures and the difference between the British and American findings. The following factors comprised essentially the same items and were given the same labels for the two sets of findings: 'Lack of Course Relevance', 'Time Constraints', 'Cost', and 'Personal/Family Problems'. The U.S. 'Lack of Confidence' factor split in the British analysis into two factors labelled 'Low Confidence - General' and 'Low Confidence - Age'. The latter consisted of such items as 'Because I felt I was too old to take the course' and 'Because I didn't have the qualifications for the course'.

Relationship of Factor Scores to Demographics

Data on sex, age, educational attainment, income and employment status were secured for both samples. To compare the relationships of respondent characteristics to factor scores, only the factors common to both analyzes can be utilized: Course relevance, Low Confidence (British 'Low General'), Time Constraints, Cost, and Family Problems (U.S. 'Personal Problems'). The pattern of correlations was comparable across the two samples and largely what one would expect. For example, as was the case in both Britain and the U.S., one would expect Low Confidence to be significantly and negatively correlated with education, Cost to be negatively correlated with income and education, full time employment to be positively correlated with Time Constraints, and Family Problems to be negatively associated with sex (female) and educational attainment.

Conclusion

The factors generated from both the U.S. and British data were comparable and represented clearly defined, conceptually meaningful components of the deterrent construct. Despite departures from methodological purity, the findings provide strong support for the generalizability of the U.S. to Britain. This conclusion has considerable theoretical significance, as well as implications for progam planning and marketing. A priority for future research is replication in other Western nations; additional suggestions can be found in Darkenwald and Valentine (1985).

References

Darkenwald, G. & Valentine, T. (1985). Factor structure of deterrents to public participation in adult education. Adult Education Quarterly, 35, 177-193

Department of Employment (1986). New earnings survey. London

Hayes, E. & Darkenwald, G. (1988). Participation in basic education: Deterrents for low-literate adults. Studies in the Education of Adults, 20, 16-28

Hui, C. & Triandis, C. (1985). Measurement in cross-cultural psychology. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 16, 131-152

Scanlan, C. & Darkenwald, G. (1984). Identifying deterrents to participation in continuing education. Adult Education Quarterly, 34, 155-166

Attitudes Toward Adult Education in Britain and the United States

Gordon G. Darkenwald
Rutgers University

Abstract

A study of attitudes toward adult education conducted in the U.S. was replicated in Britain. The objectives of the replication were to explore the extent to which American and British attitudes were congruent, predicted participation-related behavior, and exhibited similar correlations with respondent background characteristics. The U.S. and British findings were comparable in certain respects, but divergent in others.

Introduction

A typical definition of attitude is 'an internal state which affects an individual's choice of action toward some object, person, or event' (Gagne and Briggs, 1974, p.62). It follows, of course, that attitudes toward adult education significantly influence the likelihood of participation in adult education. Although the construct of attitude is central to theories of participation behavior (Cross, 1981; Darkenwald and Merriam, 1982; Houle, 1984; Rubenson, 1977), only a handful of attempts have been made to measure attitudes - all of them unsuccessful. Attitudes are important not only because they affect participation in adult education, but also because they determine in part public support for the provision of adult education in the community and workplace.

Methodology

Theory of Attitude Measurement

Due in part to a lack of conceptual and technical sophistication in scale construction, attitude measures are often poor predictors of behavior. Rokeach (1968) has cogently adddressed the former deficiency in his formulation of the two-attitudes theory. Briefly, Rokeach postulates that behavior is affected by two types of attitudes: attitude toward object (e.g., adult education) and attitude toward situation (e.g., participating in a discussion group). By itself, attitude toward object has not exhibited consistent relationships with behavior. Attitude toward the situation must also be measured within the same scale if the A-B correspondence is to be maximized.

Instrumentation

The Adult Attitudes Toward Continuing Education Scale (AACES) was developed and pilot-tested over a six-month period by a team of 10 Rutgers doctoral students supervised by the present author. A detailed description of the procedures employed to construct AACES can be found in Darkenwald and Hayes (1988).

The final form of AACES consists of 22 items on a Likert-type five-point scale. Seven of the 22 measure attitude to situation (e.g., 'Being in a classroom makes me feel uncomfortable') and the remainder attitude to object (e.g., 'the need for education continues throughout one's lifetime'). The version of AACES administered in Britain was identical to the original except for necessary Anglicization of the directions and a few words such as 'program' (programme). The reliability of AACES was high and identical for both the U.S. and British samples (alpha= .90). Evidence of predictive and concurrent validity is presented in the findings section of this paper.

The directions to respondents were equivalently worded in Britain and the United States. Adult education was defined very broadly to include any subject, purpose, or format. The British directions read as follows.

'Adult education is defined here as any education provision for adults (including job training) organised by local adult education centres, further education/technical colleges, community groups and clubs, employers, universities, unions, churches, associations, hospitals, etc. It includes all ways of learning and all subjects that adults wish or need to study.

Please read the following list of statements. Each expresses an opinion about adult education. There are, of course, no right or wrong opinions. For each statement, circle the number that best describes your feelings about it: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=undecided, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree. Should you change your mind, cross-out your first answer.'

Behavioral Index. A four-item 'yes/no' Behavioral Index was developed to assess attitude-behavior (A-B) correspondence. Multi-item measures are preferred for this purpose in that 'a behavioral score based on conceptually related and intercorrelated behaviors should be more reliable than a single behavior, and this in turn should increase the A-B relationship' (Schuman and Johnson, 1976, p.183). The first three items inquired about current participation in adult education, frequency of participation, and past participation; the last asked respondents 'Have you ever suggested to another adult that he or she engage in some kind of adult education or training'? The alpha reliability coefficient for the Index was an acceptable .63.

Sampling and Data Collection

The U.S. data were obtained from 275 adults (persons 18 or older and not full time students) resident in central New Jersey. Since lack of funds precluded drawing a random sample, purposive sampling aimed at securing responses from a cross-section of the general public was employed. The data were collected personally by the members of the research team. Although a strictly random sample would have been preferable, it was not essential for the purposes of the research. To explore and compare relationships among variables (rather than estimate population parameters) requires only that the number of cases be sufficiently large and heterogeneous to permit sophisticated statistical analyzes. Ultimately, external validity, as is always the case, can only be established by multiple replications.

In Britain, a market research firm was engaged to draw a random sample of the adult public from the electoral lists of England. (NB: this sample was not the same one employed for my other conference paper). Wales and Scotland were excluded because of their cultural and linguistic distinctiveness. Six hundred questionnaires were mailed with cover letters and stamped, pre-addressed return envelopes. Follow-ups of non-respondents were conducted at three-week intervals. Two hundred fifty-one useable questionnaires were returned. Adjusted for postal service 'undeliverables' (n=115) and illness, death, disability, etc. (as indicated by letters or notes with returned blank questionnaires - a total of 34), but not refusals (n=19), the return rate was a respectable 55.6%. Bias estimation procedures revealed that the U.S. sample was over-represented by adults with high incomes and high educational attainment. The British sample, however, was quite close to being representative of the general adult public.

Description of Respondents

Only a cursory overview of the demographics for the two samples can be given here. For England, the basic statistics are these. Sex: 55.4% female; Age: mean=44 years; Employment status: 42.3% employed full time; Educational attainment: 40.2%, no formal credential; 33.1% CSE to GCE A-level secondary school credential; 7.2% two or three year postsecondary school credential (e.g., ONC, HND); 6.4% university first degree; 8% other, including postgraduate study or degree; annual gross household income: 19% less than £5,000; 27.1% £5,000 to £10,000; 31.2% £11,000 to £20,000; 9.3% £21,000 to £29,000; 6.1% £30,000 or more; and 6.9% (mainly women) 'don't know'. In May, 1987, the time of the survey, one pound sterling equalled $1.60. The New Jersey statistics indicate a pronounced discrepancy in income and educational attainment, which simply mirrors the reality of the two countries. However, at secondary level and below one should not draw a simple conclusion since British school completers who do not sit for exams (the majority) receive no credential.

The New Jersey demographics are these. Sex: 53.5% female; Age: mean=39 years; Employment status: information not obtained; Educational attainment: 5.2% no credential; 27.5% secondary school credential; 26.8% postsecondary study or credential; 21.2% college/university first degree; 19.3% postgraduate study or degree; Annual gross household income: 7.6% less than $15,000; 32.8% $15,000 to $29,000; 32.8% $30,000 to $44,999; 26.7% $45,000 or more. With respect to race/ethnicity, 14.5% of the U.S. respondents described themselves as Black; only 3.6% of the English sample indicated minority group status, mostly Indian and West Indian.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were calculated for the AACES items and total scale scores for both samples. Negatively worded items were reverse-coded; thus the higher one's score, the more positive one's attitude toward adult education. Since the item and total scale statistics differed little, sophisticated statistics, such as the Mann-Whitney U test, were not calculated. The principal research objective - determining the relationship of attitudes (and selected demographics) to participation behavior - was addressed by computing least square multiple regress equations for both the British and American samples. The independent variables in the regression equations were attitude score and sex, age and educational attainment (the only demographics available for both countries). The dependent variable was the Behavioral Index. Model-fitting statistics revealed that the residuals for U.S. educational attainment were negatively skewed. Consequently, a square transformation of the dependent variable was required to produce an appropriate model. Correlational analyzes were utilized to explore the relationship between respondent demographics and attitude scores. The criterion for statistical significance was $P \leq .05$.

Findings

The results of the multiple regression analyzes are presented in Tables 1 and 2. In both equations, sex was insignificant when controlled on the other independent variables and therefore deleted from the summary tables. For both countries Attitude (positive) and Educational Attainment (higher) were the principal predictors of participation-related behavior. However, it is noteworthy that in Britain the influence of attitudes, best indicated by BETA (a sort of purified correlation coefficient), was substantially greater than in the U.S. This could be due to the higher levels of educational attainment in the U.S.A. Prior research has established that this variable is by far the most potent predictor of adult education participation.

Oddly, the total 'explained variance' (R^2) was identical for the two countries. Although R^2's on the order of .28 are quite respectable in behavioral research, it should be kept in mind that more than two-thirds of whatever accounts for participation behavior remains unidentified. Future research must take into account other promising variables, such as deterrents and motivation.

Why age (being somewhat older) should exhibit a modest but statistically significant effect in Britian but not in the U.S. is puzzling. Perhaps the explanation is related to the fact that middle-aged and older women are the main participants in non-vocational adult education in Britain (McGivney, 1988).

Table 1. Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis: Britain

Independent Variable	Simple r	Multiple R	R^2	BETA
Attitude	.50**	.50**	.25	.48**
Education	.26**	.52	.27#	.18*
Age	.01	.53	.28#	.13*

*P= .02; **P= .0001; #=increment in R^2 sig. at P= .02

Table 2. Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis: U.S.A.

Independent Variable	Simple r	Multiple R	R^2	BETA
Education	.47*	.47	.22	.47*
Attitude	.35*	.53	.28	.26*

*P= .0001; #=increment in R^2 significant at P= .0001

Some statistically significant correlations were found between AACES scores for both countries and respondent socio-demographics. In both countries more positive attitudes were associated with higher levels of education. In the U.S., sex (female) was correlated with positive attitudes and so too was income. In Britain, younger adults exhibited more positive attitudes toward adult education; in the U.S., no relationship was observed. The explanations for most of the observed discrepancies are not difficult in light of the findings presented above.

Conclusion

It appears that attitudes toward adult education are reasonably comparable in Britain and the United States. Attitudes in both countries were generally positive, and the low- and high-ranked AACES items were nearly identical. However, there were notable discrepancies between Britian and U.S. with regard to the relationships between attitude scores and respondent demographic characteristics: plausible explanations can be proferred, but could well be wrong. Similarly, the multiple regression analyzes, although accounting for the same variance in participation behavior, exhibited differences in the predictive power of educational attainment and attitude toward adult education. The relatively low variance in level of formal education in Britain probably lies at the root of the discrepancies.

References

Anderson, R. & Darkenwald, G.G. (1979). Participation and persistence in American adult education. New York: The College Board

Cross, K.P. (1981). Adults as learners. San Franciso: Jossey-Bass

Darkenwald, G.G. & Hayes, E. (1988). Assessment of adult attitudes toward continuing education. International journal of lifelong education, 7, in press

Darkenwald, G.G. & Merriam, S. (1982). Adult education: foundations of practice. New York: Harper & Row

Houle, C.O. (1985). Structural features and policies promoting and inhibiting adult learning. In Knoll, J. Motivation for adult education. Paris: Saur, 64-73

Hui, C. & Triandis, C. (1985). Measurement in cross cultural psychology. Journal of cross-cultural psychology, 16, 131-152

McGivney, V. (1988). Personal communication

Rokeach, M. (1968). Beliefs, attitudes, and values. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Rubenson, K. (1977). Participation in recurrent education. Paris: OECD

Schuman, H. & Johnson, M. (1976). Attitudes and behavior. Annual Review of Psychology, V36. New York: Annual Reviews

CONCEPT MAPS AS HEURISTIC TOOLS FOR COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF DOCUMENTS

David Deshler, Associate Professor, Cornell University

Abstract: *Concept maps* are hierarchically constructed holistic spacial representations of relationships among essential concepts. The process of creating and comparing concept maps is described. Two examples that have been constructed through analysis of various types of documents are displayed. The use of concept maps for instruction, curriculum construction, and evaluation as well as for heuristic comparative analysis of documents is discussed.

Purpose: The purpose of this paper is not to report research findings, but to suggest the use of *concept maps* as heuristic tools for the comparative analysis of documents and other qualitative forms of data.

Origins of Concept Mapping: The application of concept maps to adult education research is an extension of the creative work of Novak and Gowin (1984) who have introduced the method to elementary, secondary and higher education as a means to increase meaningful learning. More than a dozen Master's and PhD theses at Cornell University have described the use of the technique for curriculum development (Novak and Symington, 1982) and instruction in elementary schools (Rowell, 1978; Stewart, 1979), in secondary schools (Kinigstein, 1981; Melby-Robb, 1982; Novak, Gowin and Johansen, 1983), and in higher education (Cardemone, 1975; Minemier, 1983). Deshler and Sock (1985) used concept maps to review, compare, and synthesize documents drawn from the international literature on popular participation in community development.

Importance of Concept Mapping for Adult Education: At this point in adult education history, researchers need to generate theory. Therefore, as researchers we should consider all methods which may contribute to theory building. This task requires rigorous efforts to analyze the major assumptions of relationships among concepts from a broad range of research studies, documents, and other forms of qualitative data. Theory building depends, to a large extent, on the capacity of researchers to identify relevant concepts and to link them as building blocks for constructing theories. The creation of concept maps that summarize data sources can assist researchers in this process of theory building. Concept maps may be particularly useful for theory construction through the analysis of comparative international adult education data or documents.

Definition: A concept map is a schematic device for representing a set of concept meanings embedded in a framework of propositions (Novak and Gowin, p. 15, 1984). It is one type of representational depiction. Flow charts or organizational charts with their administrative units or positions are representational depictions but are not really concept maps because their key words usually are not concepts with meanings. Semantic networks and predicability trees likewise are not concept maps. Concept maps are hierarchically constructed holistic spacial representations of the relationships among essential concepts. Any subject matter or discipline can be organized according to a conceptual hierarchy in which minor elements of knowledge are associated with (subsumed under) larger more general concepts. Hence there is no limit to the degree of inclusiveness, breadth, or detail that can be incorporated when organizing the component parts.

Procedures: The procedures for creating concept maps incorporate three major principles; hierarchical structure, progressive differintiation, and integrative reconciliation. According to Ausubel, Novak, and Hanesian (1978) meaningful learning or knowledge construction is enhanced when learners (or for that matter researchers) recognize that: (1) new information is related to and subsumable under more general or more inclusive concepts (principle of *hierarchical structure*); (2) new concepts are continuously acquired and differintiated (principle of *progressive differentiation*); and (3) new relationships between related sets of concepts or propositions are linked (principle of *integrative reconcilliation*). With these three principles in mind, creators of concept maps first discern, extrapolate from data sources, or nominate a list of essential concepts that are associated with the event, object or phenomenon under consideration. Concepts on this list are then rank ordered with those most inclusive at the top of the list. Using this rank ordered list as a guide, a concept map is then constructed along a vertical axis according to the breadth or degree of inclusiveness, the broadest concept being at the top (*hierarchical structure*). The organization of the map then unfolds as clusters of concepts are grouped and differintiated (*progressive differentiation*). Concepts are usually circled or placed in boxes. Lines are then drawn between concepts (*integrative reconcilliation*) with words placed on the lines to indicate the nature of the relationship (caused by, supported by, affected by, reciprocally related to, can be, cannot be, leads to, depends on, examples of, such as, etc.). Concept maps can be read as compound sentences that visually depict the branching of subordinate concepts and operations. Thus, complex multiple relationships can be displayed. While constructing the map, new insights and relationships are often recognized. Careful attention to the words selected to link concepts will improve the quality of thinking about the nature of relationships. The redrawing of maps is recommended to not only make the maps more aesthetically pleasing but also to reduce flaws and to increase clarity. In some cases, it may be desirable to show the directionality of relationships through the use of arrows.

When using maps as a data reduction device, units of analysis can vary. For example, each interview transcript or document can be analyzed and a concept map produced for each, or data can be clustered and mined for essential concepts from which a single synthesis concept map can be constructed for each cluster of transcripts or documents. When undertaking comparative research, the maps can serve to discern major alternative ways of perceiving or differrent assumptions about the nature of relationships. Terminology used by different sources presents major challenges when comparing concept maps since there may not be common meanings to even the same concept. Nevertheless, the comparisons provide ample stimulation for creative cognitive integration that may lead to the discernment of principles and theory. Concept maps provide visual road maps of overt representations and propositions held by persons, learners, authors, and researchers. Upon reflection, concept maps may reveal a lack of clarity, comprehensiveness, or cohesiveness; misconceptions and contradictions in meaning; and variety of cognitive organization.

Applications: Concept maps have been used as instructional tools and as means to assess the cognitive needs of learners. They also can be used to plan and display the complex relationships among various parts of a curriculum. Concept maps produced by learners can be evaluated for misconceptions, lack of clarity, creative thought, and alternative perspectives of reality. This paper, however, suggests that concept maps are especially helpful in the display of theoretical frameworks particularly as heuristic devices for comparative literature analysis. Concept maps can be constructed or extrapolated from data in the form of documents, research reports, program descriptions, purpose statements, case studies, legislation, philosophical essays, novels, poems, personal documents, and qualitative interview transcripts (any data source that is rich in concepts and coherent meaning). Creating maps from these data sources enables the researcher to accomplish a data reduction process that contributes to making judgments through comparative analysis of the various maps that have been created. These comparisons can reveal similarities and differences, omissions, alternative assumptions, conflicting claims, and competing paradigms. Composite maps using the most common concepts can be created. These have usefulness in summarizing the conceptual "state of the art" for the population of documents under consideration.

Examples of Concept Maps: Figure 1: *Composite Concept Map of Participation Levels in International Community Development*, was created as a synthesis of the analysis of more than 50 documents on international development popular participation (Deshler and Sock, 1985).

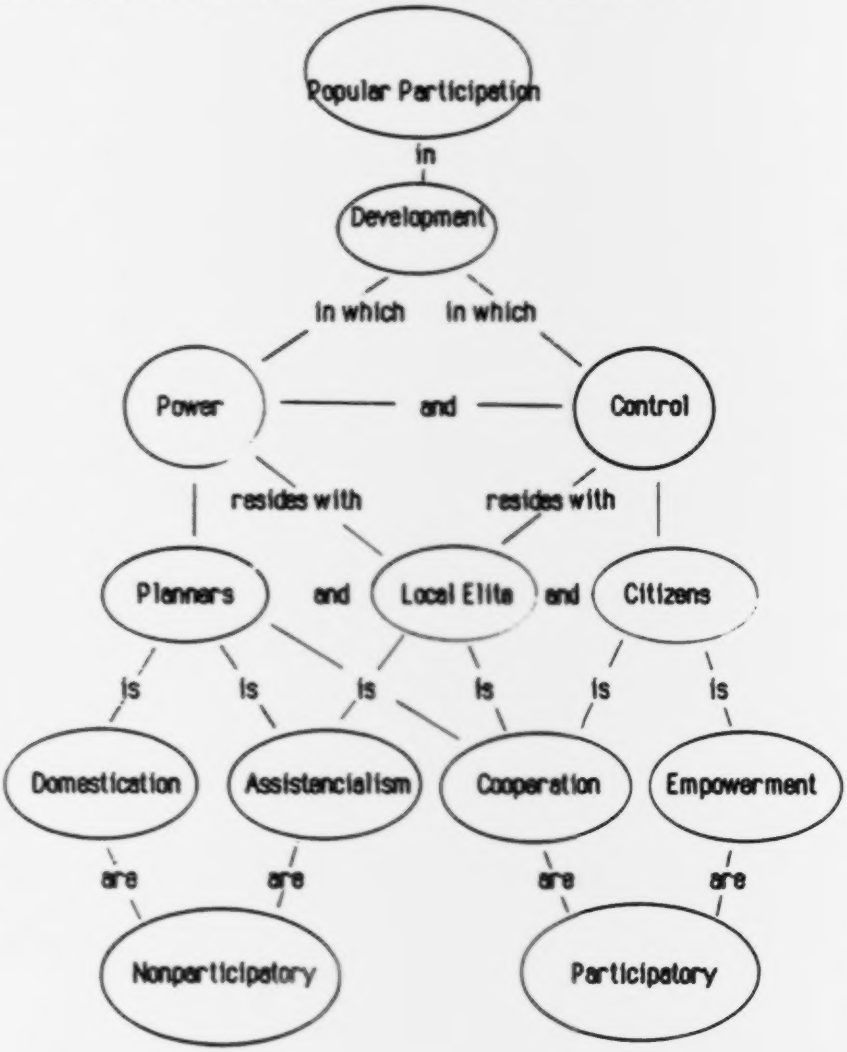

Popular Participation
in
Development
in which
in which
Power
and
Control
resides with
resides with
Planners
and
Local Elite
and
Citizens
is
is
is
is
is
is
Domestication
Assistancialism
Cooperation
Empowerment
are
are
are
are
Nonparticipatory
Participatory

Figure 1: *Concept Map of Participation Levels in International Community Development*

Figure 2: *Theories of Adult Learning* provides another example of a concept map derived from an article by Merriam (1986) that summarizes some of the current concepts in adult learning. This concept map could be compared with others derived from literature on adult learning from other parts of the world.

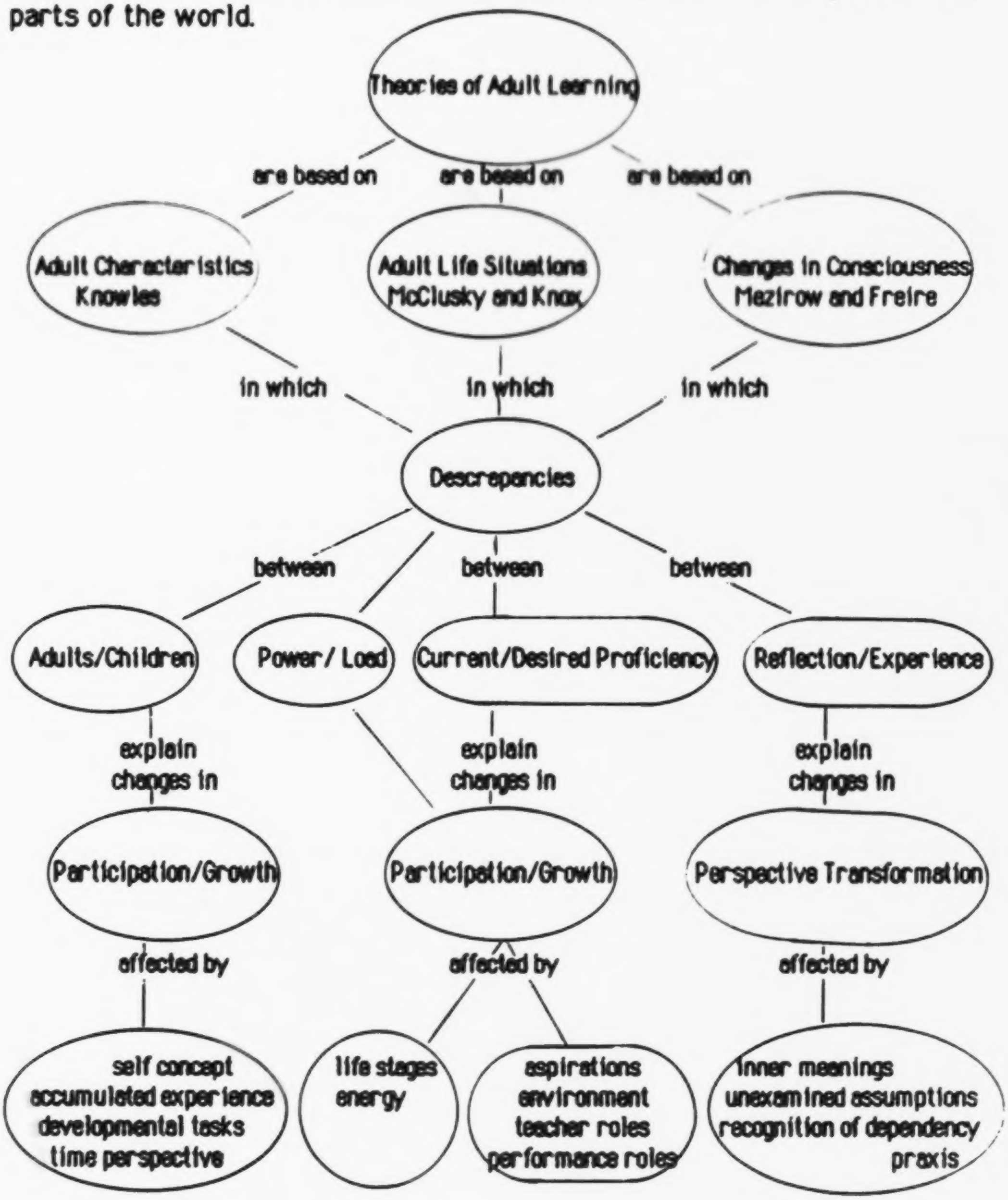

Theories of Adult Learning
are based on
are based on
are based on
Adult Characteristics
Knowles
Adult Life Situations
McClusky and Knox
Changes in Consciousness
Mezirow and Freire
in which
in which
in which
Descrepancies
between
between
between
Adults/Children
Power/ Load
Current/Desired Proficiency
Reflection/Experience
explain changes in
explain changes in
explain changes in
Participation/Growth
Participation/Growth
Perspective Transformation
affected by
affected by
affected by
self concept
accumulated experience
developmental tasks
time perspective
life stages
energy
aspirations
environment
teacher roles
performance roles
inner meanings
unexamined assumptions
recognition of dependency
praxis

Figure 2: *Theories of Adult Learning*

Theory building is an inductive creative process requiring identification of potentially powerful concepts, differintiating and linking them together to form meaning that can be confirmed. Our data sources are usually in the form of linear written or spoken concepts and propositions. Theoretical thinking, on the other hand, is more hierarchical or holographic (Novak and Gowin, p. 53, 1984). Concept maps assist us in transforming linear material into more holistic visual imagery and therefor help us to synthesize and to perceive in new ways.

References:

Ausubel, D.P.; Novak, J.D.; and Hanesian, H. Educational Psychology: A cognitive View, 2nd ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1978.

Cardemone, P.F. "Concept Mapping: A Technique of Analyzing a Discipline and its Use in the Curriculum and Instruction in a Portion of a College Level Mathematics Skills Course." Master's thesis, Cornell University, 1975.

Deshler, D. and Sock, D. "Community Development Participation: A Concept review of the International Literature," Paper presented at the International League for Social Commitment in Adult Education, Ljingskile, Sweden, 1985.

Kinigstein, J.B. "A Conceptual Approach to Planning and Environmental Education Curriculum." Master's thesis, Cornell University, 1981.

Melby-Robb, S.J. "An Exploration of the Uses of Concept Mapping with Science Students Labeled Low Achievers." Master's Thesis, Cornell University, 1982.

Merriam. S.B. "Adult Learning and Theory Building: A Review." Adult Education Quarterly. 1987, 37, 187-98.

Minemier, L. "Concept Mapping: An Educational Tool and its Use in a College Level Mathematics Skills Course." Master's thesis, Cornell University, 1983.

Novak, J.D.; Bowin, D.B; and Johansen, G.T. "The Use of Concept Mapping and Knowledge Vee Mapping with Junior High School Science Students." Science Education, 67 (5): 625-45, 1983.

Novak, J.D. and Symington, D. "Concept Mapping for Curriculum Development." Victoria Institute of Educational Research Bulletin, 48: 3-11, 1982.

Novak, J.D. and Gowin, D.B. Learning How to Learn. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1984.

Rowell R.M. "Concept Mapping: Evaluation of Children's Science Concepts Following Audio-tutorial Instruction," PhD thesis, Cornell University, 1978.

Stewart, J.; Van Kirk, J.; and Rowell, R. "Concept Maps: A Tool for Use in Biology Teaching." American Biology Teacher, 41(3): 171-5, 1979.

ADULT EDUCATION AND THE NEEDS OF THE UNEMPLOYED IN BRITAIN

Christine Edwards*

This paper argues that, although training in specific skills and basic competency will enable some of the unemployed to win work, many face long-term or permanent unemployment. It suggests that adult education could alleviate some of the deleterious social and personal consequences of unemployment by providing practicl courses in coping skills and opportunities for social and intellectual activity and self-fulfilment.

....

INTRODUCTION

Britain, in common with most western countries, has experienced a massive increase in unemployment in recent years. In January 1986, almost three and a half million people were registered as unemployed and claiming benefit in the United Kingdom - 14% of the working population. Although, since then there has been a steady decrease to 11% in February 1988, even the most optimistic forecasts predict that unemployment will be a significant factor for several years to come. Moreover, these official government figures, based only on those entitled to claim unemployment benefit, almost certainly underestimate the number of those who would like to work, but who cannot find unemployment (see Department of Employment Gazette, October 1985).

The problem of unemployment is associated with a number of major structural changes which are taking place in the labour market. The main trend has been a decline in employment in manufacturing to about 26% and a growth of the service sector to embrace almost two thirds of employees (Department of Employment Gazette, December 1986). Growth in demand is predicted for those with higher educational qualifications, those with multiple skills and those willing to do low paid semi and unskilled work ; and for self-employment (Institute of Manpower Studies, 1986). The demise of full employment, at least for the foreseeable future, and rapid changes in the demand for labour have important implications for the nature and provision of education in society, in particular they underline the need for continuous education throughout an adult's working life.

The purpose of this paper is to illustrate the magnitude and complexity of the changes which are taking place in the labour market and explore the implications for the "education" of the unemployed. It does so by reference to a systematic study of a local labour market in the prosperous town of Bath in South West England.

* North East London Polytechnic

THE STUDY

Bath presents an interesting research site as most British studies have concentrated on areas of high unemployment. The problems of the unemployed in the relatively affluent areas of the South are less well researched and recognised. At the time of the study, late 1986, Bath's rate of registered unemployed at 9.7% was historically high for the City but below average for the country as a whole (13.7% nationally). There was little previous experience of widespread unemployment in the community.

The main source of data for the research was a survey of 904 employers, of which one hundred were interviewed personally and the remainder completed a self-report questionnaire. Information collected in this way included their estimates of current and future employment in their organisation, their recruitment practices and training needs. Those responding to the survey provided about 70% of employment in the Bath City area and over half of the employment in the entire Travel to Work Area. The main source of information on the unemployed were in-depth interviews with 30 unemployed people and responses to a self-report questionnaire handed out to claimants at benefit offices in November 1986. The response rate to the survey was, as might be expected, rather low (15%) but comparisons with the Department of Employment's local statistics on age, sex, duration of employment and geographical distribution showed the 700 respondents to be representative of the unemployed in the area.

THE FINDINGS

Analysis of the survey data showed that the national trend for contraction or at best static employment in manufacturing, the primary sector, transport and communication on the one hand, and growth in the service sector on the other, was set to continue in Bath. A small but positive gain in jobs was forecast and this has been confirmed by a drop in the Bath unemployment figures to 6.7% by February 1988. However, there was little prospect of an eradication of unemployment in the foreseeable future. Moreover, detailed comparisons of the skills and experience of the unemployed respondents to the survey and the areas of predicted growth, revealed a considerable mismatch. Whereas the bulk of the unemployed were semi and unskilled manual workers, the jobs being created were either for white collar, office or retail sales staff, or, for highly qualified scientists and professionals. Much of the growth in less skilled work was in industrial sectors (construction, distribution, hotels and catering) and in very small firms (those employing less than 25) which, on average, offer poorer wages and conditions of work and where employment is less secure. Many of these, and jobs in the better paid financial services sector moreover, have been traditionally undertaken by women and juveniles - the majority of the registered unemployed in Bath, however, are male adults. The outlook for the male semi and skilled manual worker is bleak in Bath, as it is in the country as a whole.

ADULT EDUCATION FOR THE UNEMPLOYED

The Thatcher government's response to the problems of historically high levels of unemployment and structural change in the labour market has been to launch a number of training initiatives. Central to these is the Youth Training Scheme (Y.T.S.) which places school leavers with firms for a two year period of training. Its objective is to provide a permanant bridge between school and work and to improve the quality of the future workforce (MSC, 1981a, 1981b, 1982). There has been some (much criticised) provision of training schemes for the older and long term unemployed in the Job Training Scheme (JTS) and Community Programme. Recently, these have been brought together in a major initiative outlined in a Government White Paper "Training for Employment" (HMSO, 1988). The government's stated objectives are to open up opportunities for adults to train, retrain and acquire and upgrade their skills throughout their working lives. The programme, which is intended to provide 600,000 training places each year, will offer practical and directed training. There will be projects along the lines of the community programme and employer based training modelled on the Y.T.S. Directed training will be provided by further education colleges. "In the rapidly changing world in which we are living", the white paper explains, "the labour market is changing as rapidly as anything else. If Britain invests in people and their skills, and does so throughout life, we can be confident of seeing greater and greater returns - to the country, to the economy and to the individuals themselves." It is to these ends that the bulk of government money and initiatives with regard to unemployment are aimed. The unemployed are to be equipped with the skills needed to win work.

How far then, is this policy meeting the needs of the unemployed? First, the research findings underline the urgent need for upgrading the general level of skill in the workforce. Britain has a poor record of vocational training and this fact is reflected in the number of unemployed respondents to the Bath survey who either had received no training at all (28%) or only "on the job" training (36%). Most respondents were also aware of the need to retrain if they were to find employment, four out of five said without reservation that they would be willing to undergo retraining. However, it is uncertain whether the employer based schemes initiated by the government will produce the kinds of transferable skills and flexibility required to respond to a rapidly changing job market. Some evaluations of the Y.T.S. schemes, for example, suggest that employers have neither the motivation nor the ability to provide such training (Roberts et al, 1986). Furthermore, the level of general educational attainment among the unemployed in Bath was such (two thirds had no qualifications beyond the Certificate of Secondary

Education) to suggest that training in foundation skills and general competences is required before more specific vocational training would be appropriate. (A fact which is increasingly recognised in the courses offered by local authority funded adult education).

Second, even if training was of the nature and quality required, the Bath data clearly illustrate that training alone would not eradicate unemployment - there is just not enough demand for labour, trained or otherwise. The survey of employers did identify some "skills" shortages in Bath in two main categories of work, highly qualified professionals and scientists on the one hand, and for semi and unskilled labour offering wages below the level of state and other benefits on the other. Even employers anticipating the introduction of new technology, and who might be expected to recruit appropriately retrained individuals, said that, for the most part they intended to retain and retrain their existing staff. Thus, the number of openings for the retrained unemployed will be very limited.

Third, part of the mismatch between the demands of the market and the unemployed concerns personal and social characteristics, particularly age and sex, rather than job related skills. Much of the job growth in the service sector has occurred in areas traditionally employing women and young people at relatively low rates of pay. Thus, it is unlikely, for example, that a 45 year old manual labourer would be acceptable as a secretary or receptionist, however well trained. Conversely, it is unlikely that the type of work and level of pay offered in many service sector jobs would be acceptable to the unemployed even with the harsher treatment meted out to those who refuse work.

The overwhelming conclusion to be drawn from these observations is that if current trends continue, for many, training schemes will merely provide a temporary respite from the dole queue and that permanent and temporary unemployment will be a harsh reality for a significant minority of the workforce.

TRAINING FOR UNEMPLOYMENT ?

Employment provides us with a social identity, a status and, for many, a sense of meaning and of achievement. Work structures the day, gives opportunities for social contact and is a source of variety in terms of environment, activity and people. Most important, it is the means to obtain a certain standard of living. The central importance of work in our lives is recognised in the burgeoning number of pre-retirement courses for those reaching the end of their working lives. These include advice on financial planning, marital and social relationships and managing leisure. The unemployed face similar problems, but without the socially accepted role of being "retired" and often in much more restricted financial circumstances. Moreover, research bears witness to the devasting effect it can have on individuals and their families finding associations between unemployment and ill-health, suicide and attempted suicide, enhanced mortality rates, marital breakdown and racial conflict (Townsend and Davidson 1982, Platt, 1986, Hakim, 1982). It is clearly a social as well as an individual problem, yet there is little public provision for advice, let alone training for those who must endure it.

The best way of assisting the unemployed is to equip them to get a job and the major part of adult education will inevitably be orientated towards this goal. Nonetheless, there is also a crucial role for practical courses preparing people to cope with the problem of unemployment, perhaps along the lines of pre-retirement courses. Finally, there is the prospect that, for some, education could provide a means of recognition and self-fulfilment. The unemployed respondents to the Bath survey cited poverty, boredom, loss of confidence, isolation and stigma as the worst things about being unemployed. Boredom was particularly acute for teenagers, those without families and those with lower levels of educational attainment. Education, in its broadest sense, could provide opportunities for social and intellectual activity, a sense of meaning and self-achievement in the lives of the unemployed be it from learning basic numeracy and literacy, 'A' level English or a course in dress design. The problem is, of course, who will fund such courses at a time when education is increasingly judged by its usefulness to the economy. To promote education as a means of individual self-fulfilment or as a way of improving the quality of life is one Victorian value which the present British government appears reluctant to revive.

REFERENCES

Hakim, C. (1982) : The Social Consequences of High Unemployment Journal of Social Policy, 11, 1982 pp. 433-67

Manpower Services Commission (1981b) : Youth Task Group Report, London

Manpower Services Commission (1981b) : A New Training Initiative : An Agenda for Action, London

Manpower Services Commission (1981c) : A New Training Initiative : A Consultative Document, London

Platt, S. (1986) : "Recent Trends in Parasuicide ('Attempted Suicide') and Unemployment Among Men in Edinburgh in "The Experience of Unemployment" Allen, S. et al (eds.) McMillan, 1986

Townsend, P. & Davidson, N. (1982) : "Inequalities in Health" Harmondsworth : Penguin Books

Training for Employment : Command 316, HMSO, London

REACHING OUT TO THE NEEDS OF THE TRAINERS

Karen Evans and Ian Haffenden

Department of Educational Studies
University of Surrey

Abstract

This paper reports on the findings of two distinct yet complementary research studies which identify the characteristics and training needs of in-company supervisors, instructors and trainers in Britain.

In Britain, as with most other European countries, little detailed information exists on the competencies and qualifications held by in-company trainers, instructors, and supervisors of young people. Their backgrounds, career profiles, and staff development needs are poorly documented.[1] Moreover, in Britain in the last few years, with the increasing importance of work-based learning and assessment and the wide scale introduction of open and flexible learning, the training needs of this group have intensified.

This paper will examine and report on the findings from two distinct yet complementary research studies, which identify some characteristics and training needs of in-company trainers, instructors, and supervisors of young people in Britain. Both studies were national in terms of their sample spread.

The Studies

The first study, sponsored by the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP) and led by Dr Karen Evans, was designed to explore the characteristics roles and functions of different types of trainers found within medium sized enterprises, and perspectives on their training and staff development needs.[2] The study adopted a qualitative approach focused on 25 sample companies 11 drawn from the manufacturing sector and 14 from the service industries sector. Training Managers, Trainers, Trainees and Union representatives from each of the 25 companies were interviewed in situ, using structured interview schedules, on a range of training and training related issues.

The second of the two studies, sponsored by the Oxfordshire Programme for Training, Instruction and Supervision (OPTIS) and led by Ian Haffenden, evaluated nationally the extent of open learning in the two year Youth Training Scheme.[3] The aim here was to identify the nature of the training support required. Using an established infrastructure of 9 Manpower Services Commission (MSC) regions each containing a number of Area Offices (over 50 in total), a questionnaire survey was used to gather data from Training Managers, Trainers, and Trainees. A separate questionnaire was also sent to the Staff Training Co-ordinators of the Accredited Training Centres. In this study, by use of a network of research officers and the Area Offices Link Officers, the questionnaires were distributed to a wide range of vocational areas, nationally, including for example: Building, Agriculture, Retail, Caring, Post Office, and Riding Stables.

The National Context to Training of In-company Trainers

As recognised by the British government: 'For prosperity and growth we need to invent, to innovate, to invest, and to exploit new technology'.[4] However during the 1970s Britain, as compared to its trading partners and competitors, was slow in adapting and responding to this challenge. The result was that British industry was to lose much of its share in many of its traditional international markets. Moreover, by the early 1980s the decline was further aggravated by a swell in the number of school leavers, resulting in record levels of unemployment - especially in the 17-24 year old age range.[5]

To alleviate this worsening socio-economic scenerio the government of the day sought to achieve '... urgent and radical changes to our training arrangements' so as to enable 'industry and commerce and the workforce - both young and adult - to be adequately equipped to face the future'.[6] These reforms in training and education were given in the government's New Training Initiative (NTI), whose objectives were to:

i develop skill training including apprenticeship in such a way as to enable young people entering at different ages and with different educational attainments to acquire agreed standards of skill appropriate to the jobs available and to provide them with a basis for progression through further learning;

ii move towards a position where all young people under the age of 18 have the opportunity either of continuing in full-time education or of entering a period of planned work experience combined with work-related training and education;

iii open up widespread opportunities for adults, whether employed, unemployed or returning to work, to acquire, increase or update their skills and knowledge during the course of their working lives.[7]

The training implications of these objectives were clear. To satisfy these objectives the government initiated a range of strategies. The most extensive of which was the Youth Training Scheme (YTS) which was initiated in 1983 and was to provide a one year (later extended to two years) employer led programme of integrated work and training, satisfying objective 2 above. The stated aim of YTS is to create opportunities for all young people to gain credit towards a vocational qualification through relevant learning in the work place, and to replace outdated time serving apprenticeships by standards based schemes.

To support this venture, wide scale training and retraining of in-company trainers and workplace instructors and supervisors was necessary. To facilitate this training of trainers a number of Accredited Training Centres (55) were set up nationally, with appointed Staff Training Co-ordinators (STC). The STCs were responsible for the provision of training to fit the training needs of YTS schemes and local industry and commerce. The City and Guilds of London Institute was also to create a new course of training leading to a Youth Trainers Award. Moreover, from 1983, in an effort to reach the training needs of more companies the MSC was to initiate and promote open learning (through the OPEN TECH) as part of its overall training strategy, from 1983 in accordance with objective 3.

It became apparent by the mid to late 1980s that only a minority of workplace trainers and supervisors were being reached through the Accredited Training Centre network (which was also the focus for much of the training in the use of open learning). Furthermore, very little was widely known about the actual characteristics and training needs of this group of workers at the frontier of the government's plans for national economic recovery; particularly those trainers in middle sized companies. The two studies reported in this paper thus address a significant information need, both in policy and research terms.

We shall now report selectively, some findings of these two studies on trainer characteristics, and on training needs, both in general, and in relation to open learning.

Characteristics of Incompany Trainers of Young People

Postal survey data from the OPTIS national sample trainers) showed the following qualification levels for trainers involved in various types of youth training schemes.

Qualification level	(N=1791 trainers)	
Graduates	13%	(238)
Advanced Job Training	53%	(946)
General Job Training	34%	(607)

The ages of the trainers/workplace supervisors were normally distributed about the 36-45 age band as follows:

Age Band	%	
up to 25 years	7.4	(136)
26-35 years	28.4	(519)
36-45 years	33.4	(610)
46-54 years	19.3	(353)
over 55 years	11.4	(209)

The characteristics of trainers in the CEDEFOP sample of companies reflected the patterns shown in the national postal survey quite closely. However, the visit/interview method used in the 25 sample companies enabled characteristics to be explored more fully in relation to variations in function. Three types of trainer were identified as characteristic of medium-sized enterprises in the UK.

These types are here labelled 'Managers of Training' 'Supervisory Trainers', and 'Worker Trainers'. (It should be noted that these labels do not coincide with the varying job titles which are encountered in practice).

Managers of Training generally had responsibility for the overall management of training either at company or programme level. The position was either exclusively involved with training or, as was more often the case, incorporated training as one aspect of wider managerial responsibilities. This type of incompany trainer showed very wide age variations between 20s and 60s. Younger full-time staff usually had personnel/management backgrounds, while older staff tended to have a 'skills' background. The results indicated the emergence of a younger group of training managers whose own background was in training rather than in the industry.

Supervisory trainers in all cases had an industry-specific background, and had moved up within their professional skills to take on responsiblity for staff and, ultimately, for training staff. These trainers were usually departmental or section managers. The position carried with it training management responsiblities and possibly some on-job to direct training on a one-to-one or group basis. Day to day programme development and assessment of the effectiveness of training, together with liaison with training and personnel managers were typical responsibilities. Young trainers in this group often appeared to be in a tranisitional career phase combining skill-specific and managerial responsiblities. Their training role appeared to be a key element of this transitional identity.

Worker trainers were skilled workers whose training responsibilities related exclusively to the tasks or skills in which they had established competence : trainees were allocated to 'worker trainers' to acquire the same skills or to learn how to do a particular task. Worker trainers usually decide on how to transmit their skills, explain or demonstrate them and informallly judge the effectiveness of learning. Sometimes they were involved in more formal work-based assessments of competence. The length of time spent with the trainee varied, but may be substantial. Worker trainers normally had a background in the industry and saw their career evolution as within their company or industry. Increasing seniority might bring with it junior management or departmental supervisory responsibilities.

Needs and Provision for Trainers

The official view of training needs is that direct incompany trainers of young people need to be developed in training and coaching skills as well as in coordinating skills and knowledge of areas such as health and safety and equal opportunities. Managers of Training need to be competent in programme design and review, needs identification and skills of programme management.[8]

In the CEDEFOP sample of companies, training of trainers in the training role (where it was undertaken) was found to be confined almost entirely to Training Managers and Supervisory Trainers. Worker trainers received only technical training.

Training Managers, and other trainers were asked to rank order attributes required by trainers in terms of priority. The five attributes were practical experience in the area in which training is being carried out, technical expertise and qualifications; ability to relate to young people; experience as a trainer/teacher; and knowledge of the company and world of work generally.

Overall, clear priority was given by both training managers and other trainers to:

- 'ability to relate to young people'
- 'practical experience in area in which s(he) is training'

These views were reflected to some extent in the selection and recruitment of trainers and their subsequent training and development. Expertise in training skills and methods was not found to be a priority either in recruitment or in subsequent development of supervisory or worker trainers. While ability to relate to young people was highly rated, there was evidence that, in practice, this is not a prime consideration in identifying trainers. Supervisory trainers were selected primarily for their management potential rather than for their interpersonal skills with young adults, while worker trainers were selected for skills in specific tasks. These findings held in both manufacturing and service sector companies and are reflected in the assessments made by Staff Training Co-ordinators (officially responsible for training YTS trainers). The reluctance of many workplace trainers to undergo training for the training role was pointed to in interview, and attributed by STCs to the belief of these trainers that their competence as skilled and experienced workers equipped them fully to help trainees to learn to carry out talks. Weakest areas identified were assessment and counselling skills, in the judgement of STCs, and resistance to developing these skills had been often encountered.

When direct trainers were asked to identify the 2 courses they would choose to go on if given the oportunity, the priorities given to management training were again apparent. Management courses were mentioned 31 times; advanced technical 18 times; training skills and methods 15 times with 7 other types of courses (general) mentioned.

Despite this, in approximately one half of the companies, some training of trainers in training skills and methods had taken place, often in the context of wider management training. In only a small minority however, did there seem to be a systematic programme or 'policy' on the training of trainers.

The managerial emphasis in the development of staff as trainers reflected a trend among sample companies towards new management strategies in which greater importance was attached the role of first line supervision in motivation, monitoring and assessment of the workforce.

Overall the CEDEFOP study concluded that the importance of training the role of trainer needs greater recognition and emphasis. Training courses for trainers of young people need to recognise the importance of developing the ability to relate to young people, as well as the distinction between supervisory/managerial and training skills and responsibilities. Practical and relevant means of providing training for trainers of young people responsible for day to day on-the-job training need to be developed and emphasised as a priority.

Training Needs for Open Learning

It should be noted firstly that while there has been widespread promotion of open learning, since 1983, its take up and adoption has been very slow. Even some of the ATCs (who now support training in approximately 80% of YTS schemes) have yet to look seriously at using and supporting the promotion of open learning. More specifically, the OPTIS survey data estimated that only between 5% and 9% of YTS schemes - nationally - were using open learning in either the development of staff or trainees (although more trainers were trained in the design and use of open learning than those using it). Nevertheless the majority of those trainers using open learning were satisfied with its value, though often critical on specific points. These points of criticism usually included the need for 'additions' to the materials provided, 'clarification' on outcomes and content, or 'changes' to allow for more space in which to answer questions and greater flexibility of the materials across a range of vocational areas.

Moreover, of those not using open learning a substantial number were seeking advice or more information on what was available (as was the users as well). More specifically, a comprehensive catologue of existing open learning packages and approahces, what aspects of training they addressed, where they can be obtained, and who has used and assessed them previously. Also, guidelines and training on how to: (a) modify and adapt existing open learning to fit specific organisational and training contexts, (b) set up and maintain a support network for open learners, and (c) design and develop open learning to fit on-going training and to provide the required level of support needed by the learner, were identified as need areas by those surveyed. In general the survey identified the need for more effective means of disseminating information concerning open learning and training in general.

Summary

The incompany training environment in Britain has been in flux during the 1980s and continues to be so. Recently, the MSC has set up Industry Lead Bodies to set occupational work-related standards for all sectors, with the assessment of vocational education and training, in future, to be based in the work place. The consequences of this and other such policy decisions is that incompany trainers will continue to play an increasingly important role in the training and certification process of trainees. In recognition of this, the MSC has identified as one of its new priority areas, '... to ensure employers gave sufficient priority and resources to adult training'.[9]

The findings of these two studies support this need. However, they further point to the need for much greater initial training awareness raising to be provided and supported by all professional bodies concerned if such moves are to be successful.

It was indicated at the start of this paper that little is known at present about the characteristics and needs of incompany trainers. The research reported here represents first attempts to charter this previously uncharted field of study. Thus, while the qualitative data gathered in the CEDEFOP study of 25 companies provides indications of the trainers characteristics and needs in medium sized enterprises further research is required to test the extent to which they are generalisable. Similarly, the OPTIS quantitative survey whilst broadly based occupationally, only provides pointers to areas in which more qualitative research need be undertaken in order to explore roles and needs in their institutional and community contexts.

References

1. Kelly, M. J. (1983) The vocational trainer of young people in the United Kingdom, CEDEFOP, Berlin.

2. Evans. K, Dovaston. V, Holland, D. et al Draft Report : The Incompany Trainer of Young People in the United Kingdom, University of Surrey. The CEDEFOP sponsored study forms part of an international programme of studies undertaken in 6 countries of the European Community. The full report is to be published by CEDEFOP in 1988/89.

3. Haffenden, I. and Dovaston, V. (1988) 'Open Learning in Two Year YTS : Final Report on the Evaluation of the Extent of Open Learning in Two year YTS', University of Surrey. A short digest of this report will shortly be available from OPTIS, Cricket Road, Cowley, Oxford.

4. Manpower Services Commission (1981), A New Training Initiative, A Consultative Document, Sheffield, MSC.

5. Watts, A.G. (1983) Education, Unemployment and the Future of Work, Milton Keynes, The Open University.

6. Manpower Services Commission (1981), A New Training Initiative, Consultative Document, Sheffield, MSC.

7. Manpower Services Commission (1981), A New Training Initiative, A Consultative Document, Sheffield, MSC.

8. Manpower Services Commission (1986) Guide to Content and Quality on YTS/Approved Training Organisations, MSC, Scheffield.

9. Richards, M. (15th April 1988) 'New Name, Five New Priorities for MSC', in The Times Higher Educational Supplement.

New Perspectives in Adult Basic Education: The Implications of Field Dependence/Independence in Light of Sternberg's Triarchic Theory of Intelligence

Charlotte Webb Farr, University of Wyoming
Charles E. Moon, University of Wyoming

Abstract: This paper offers evidence, both empirical and qualitative, linking Sternberg's Triarchic Theory of Intelligence with Witkin's Theory of Field-dependence/independence (FDI). It articulates some of the logical arguments that can be made connecting studies on FDI done in the past with aspects of Sternberg's componential and contextual concepts of intelligence.

The recent shift from a psychometric to a cognitive understanding of intelligence is certain to have an impact on adult basic education. With the new focus on processes and the legitimization of environmental, developmental, and personality factors as mediators of intelligence has come the possibility that intelligence is malleable (e.g., Feuerstein, Jensen, Hoffman, & Rand, 1985; Sternberg, 1986; Whimbey & Lochhead, 1986). However, before research into efforts to increase intelligence in adults is attempted we need to establish a strong theoretical base for our research. One theory which may prove fruitful in providing such a base is the triarchic theory of R.J. Sternberg (Sternberg, 1985).

It is the purpose of this paper to examine Sternberg's theory, specifically to examine it in light of the research on another theory, Witkin's Theory of Field-dependence/independence, and in light of it's implications for adult basic education. Witkin's theory is included because it is hoped that the vast body of research supporting it can be linked to Sternberg's theory and because some of that research involves adults. In addition to the research cited in the literature, current research by the authors is included.

According to Sternberg's (1985) theory, intelligent behavior is contextual, experiential, and componential. The contextual aspect of intelligent behavior refers to the concept that individuals act within a sociocultural context. In responding to the societal environment in which they find themselves, individuals may choose to adapt, to select another more desirable environment, or to try to shape the present environment to better meet their needs. The experiential aspect of intelligent behavior refers to the concept that intelligent behavior, in part, is a matter of experience. Both the ability to accommodate novelty and to automatize familiar tasks are related to the amount of experience an individual has with tasks. Lastly, the componential aspect of intelligent behavior refers to the concept that the sources of individual differences in intelligence may be attributed to one of three information processing components or to a combination of these: metacomponents, performance components, and knowledge-acquisition components.

It is primarily the componential part of Sternberg's theory that this study purports to link with Witkin's concept of FDI, although some attempt to tie in the contextual component is also appropriate.

Witkin's theory of FDI began with studies of individual differences in perception and later was expanded to include cognitive tasks (Witkin, Moore, Goodenough, & Cox, 1977). Evidence has accumulated indicating that styles of dependence on and independence of the cognitive field are manifested during thinking and problem solving. Although some claims regarding FDI are inconclusive, considerable research has been done which merits attention. Foremost among this research is the research suggesting Field Dependent (FD) persons differ considerably from Field Independent (FI) persons with regard to their requirements for structure in the learning setting and their reliance on salient cues. Equally significant but less well studied and, therefore, less well articulated is the difference between FD and FI individuals with respect to social knowledge. Since Baron and Sternberg (1987) include social intelligence as an aspect of the contextual component of intelligence, it will be discussed in this paper.

There are then five aspects of Witkin's FDI concept which this paper links to Sternberg's theory, (a) FDI related differences in ability to structure when structure is not provided, (b) FDI related differences in dependence on salient cues which inhibits problem solving when classes or problems require breaking set, (c) FDI as it might relate to practical intelligence, (d) FDI as a matter of intelligence and achievement, and (d) the malleability of FDI characteristics and intelligence.

Beginning with FDI related differences in ability to structure when structure is not provided, the literature on FDI is replete with studies which demonstrate that such differences exist (Annis, 1979; Frank, 1984; McLeod, Carpenter, McCornack, & Skvarcius, 1978; Nebelkopf & Dreyer, 1970; Pitts & Thompson, 1984). Consistent with this differential ability to structure is the differential performance in mathematics, science, and reading of FD and FI students (Pitts & Thompson, 1984; Satterly, 1979; Shipman & Shipman, 1985). Mathematically capable students and experts are known to put a great deal more structure on the knowledge that they retain in long-term memory than do less capable students and novice problem solvers (Chi, Glaser, & Reese, 1982). In fact, mathematics learning is viewed as a generative process involving the construction of organizational structures for storing and retrieving information and the construction of processes for relating new information to the stored information (Wittrock, 1974). Similarly, reading is viewed as a constructive process. FI persons being more capable of such constructive processes are thus more capable in mathematics, science, and reading.

This ability to structure material is akin to Sternberg's concept of selective combination, the ability to "encode information in such a way as to form an integrated, plausible whole," (Sternberg, 1985, p 107). Subjects who excel at selective combination can combine disparate bits of information into a unified whole that may or may not resemble its parts.

With regard to FDI related differences in dependence upon salient cues which inhibits problem solving, again the literature points toward a relationship (Shipman & Shipman, 1985; Witkin et al., 1977). The nature of the task used to identify field dependence and independence is to decontextualize a specified figure embedded within a geometric configuration. That is, the subject must locate and trace a simple geometric form embedded within a more complex geometric form. In order to do this, it is necessary to select the relevant cues and to ignore the irrelevant ones. Sternberg (1985) refers to this skill as selective encoding. Studies which support the need for selective encoding in problem solving and reading do not always refer to it as selective encoding, but they nevertheless posit the need for this skill (Bransford & Stein, 1984; Mason, with Burton & Stacey, 1982; Palincsar, 1986). Witkin et al. (1977) note that FD persons have difficulty doing this.

Nothing in the literature specifically addresses the issue of FDI and practical intelligence. In fact, very little attention has been focused on the positive aspects of FD at all except to note that there is a tendency for FD persons to be more socially oriented and adept (Witkin, 1977). With the inclusion of social intelligence as an aspect of the contextual component of intelligence in Sternberg's theory, it seems more likely that the issue will now be examined. Logically, FD persons appear more likely to manifest such intelligence. FD persons' reliance on context suggests that they are better able to profit from tacit learning, learning outside of the formal learning situation. The difficulty in examining this issue is in finding appropriate empirical measures of social intelligence (Baron & Sternberg, 1987; Witkin et al., 1977).

The issue of the relationships among FDI, intelligence, and achievement is relevant because of the potential influence of FDI and intelligence on performance. With regard to the relationship between FDI and intelligence, the literature is controversial. A number of studies support the independence of FDI and intelligence (Busch & De Ridder, 1971; Haronian & Sugerman, 1966; Neblekopf & Dreyer, 1973; Vernon 1972; Witkin, 1977), and a number do not (Corah, 1965; Flexer a;nd Roberge, 1983; Jackson, 1957; Powell, 1964). Still it appears that FDI does contribute to performance in certain subjects above and beyond the contribution of intelligence (Goodenough & Karp, 1961: Kagan & Zahn, 1975; Pitts & Thompson, 1984; Satterly, 1976, 1979; Stuart, 1967) as measured by current psychometric measures of intelligence.

Finally, concerning the malleability of FDI characteristics and intelligence, Witkin et al. (1977) and Sternberg (Baron and Sternberg, 1987) would probably agree that what is influenced by environment is modifiable. Therefore, there is some reason to believe that ability to learn may be increased by altering learning approaches. Baron and Sternberg (1987) have specifically taken the position that intelligence can be taught. They have also expanded the concept of intelligence to include practical intelligence, and, in so doing, have suggested that what we teach to improve intelligence needs to be expanded also. In this matter they are in agreement with Witkin who argued for more diversity in the classroom.

Much of the authors' research data was initially collected as part of an ongoing project aimed at examining the potential relationship between FDI and success in school. The subjects were aged 16 to 65. They were predominantly White, but about 20% were minorities, including Black, Hispanic, and Oriental. The data were gathered over a period of two and one half years in a low density western state from students enrolled in adult education courses ranging from Adult Basic Education to graduate school. The results of that project are reported in Tables 1 and 2.

From these tables, it can been seen that FDI was significantly correlated with such diverse indicators of academic success as the Graduate Record Exam, the Test of Adult Basic Education, Schmecks' Deep Processing Learning Style, and a paired associates test. Additionally, a canonical analysis of some of the data suggested that FDI did contribute to the predictability of performance in a variety of educational settings above and beyond general ability. Likewise, a regression analysis of the GRE data indicated that FDI contributed to prediction of performance on the GRE above and beyond the tests of verbal and mathematical ability (GRE Verbal, Adj $R = .74, p < .001$; GRE Quantitative, Adj $R = .76; p < .001$).

The authors' data, while not initially collected to evaluate Sternberg's theory, nevertheless are consistent with Sternberg's proposal. The increase with age and with level of performance in the correlations between FDI and performance corroborate Sternberg's contention that different aspects of intelligence are operating at different levels of performance and at different tasks. Sternberg (1985) and others (Kail & Pellegrino, 1985) have conjectured that intelligence is comprised of both a general factor and specific factors, a general factor operating at lower level tasks and specific factors operating at higher level tasks. FDI, being a more content specific skill, would in fact be more likely to contribute to performance at higher level tasks.

The evidence linking Sternberg's Triarchic Theory of Intelligence and Witkin's Theory of Field-dependence/independence is sketchy, but what empirical evidence exists adumbrates some intriguing possibilities. First of all, Sternberg's theory provides a new perspective on the phenomenon of FDI, furnishing a rationale for regarding it as an aspect of intelligence. Conversely, the concept of FDI provides support for Sternberg's theory by accounting for aspects of performance not readily accounted for by traditional definitions of intelligence which may have greater relevance for adult populations. Additionally, if measures of FDI were to prove to be accurate indicators of social intelligence, they could be used to identify adults who might profit from special enrichment programs.

This paper has tried to articulate some of the logical arguments that can be made connecting studies on FDI done in the past with aspects of Sternberg's componential and contextual concepts of intelligence. Some of these arguments, such as the ones pertaining to studies on structure and salient cues, are very strong. Others, such as the ones pertaining to social intelligence, are not as strong, but are worth pursuing because they could provide a new perspective on intelligence. If Witkin (1977) is right and FDI is a bipolar phenomenon with each pole having "adaptive value under specified circumstances," (p. 16), then it ought to be possible to identify individuals and situations where performance can be enhanced by adaptive training. This seems particularly critical in a world which appears more and more to involve tasks which require competence in social skills as well as cognitive articulation among adults.

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations on Group Embedded Figures Test

Sample	n	Mean	SD
Graduate students/statistics class	51	12.13	4.66
Inservice teachers/GRE workshop	60	11.75	4.67
Undergraduate students/education classes	50	11.91	4.64
	54	12.50	4.73
	71	12.20	4.43
Undergraduate students/math review	77	9.99	4.94
Community college students/math review	35	8.20	4.66
	9	11.44	5.32
GED students	26	7.23	4.86
ABE/GED students	62	7.18	4.74
ABE students	27	3.19	3.93

Table 2
Correlations of FDI and Various Measures of Academic Performance

Measure of Academic Performance	r	p
Final grade in statistics class	.41	.002
GRE Test-Verbal	.35	.001
Quantitative	.56	.001
Analytical	.48	.001
CAT Test-Vocabulary	.18	.015
Reading comprehension	.31	.001
Spelling	.04	ns
Language mechanics	.20	.007
Language	.25	.001
Mathematics computation	.19	.010
Mathematics concepts	.42	.001
GED Test-Mathematics	.57	.001
Reading	.26	.050
Writing	.40	.005
Science	.43	.001
Social Studies	.31	.010
TABE Test-Vocabulary	.40	.005
Inference	.30	.010
Paired associates test	.39	.050
Schmeck's Deep Processing Learning Style	.42	.001

References

Annis, Linda F. (1979, October). Effect of cognitive style and learning passage organization on study technique effectiveness. Journal of Educational Psychology, 71(5), 620-626.

Baron, V. B., & Sternberg, R. V. (1987). Teaching thinking skills: Theory and practice. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company.

Bransford, J. D., & Stein, B. S. (1984). The ideal problem solver. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company.

Chi, M. H. T., Glaser, R., & Reese, E. (1982). Expertise in problem solving. In R. Sternberg (Ed.), Advances in the psychology of human intelligence (pp. 7-76). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Feuerstein, R., Jensen, N., Hoffman, N. B., & Rand, W. (1985). Instrumental enrichment, an intervention program for structural cognitive modifiability Theory and practice. In J. W. Segal, S. F. Chipman, & R. Glaser (Eds.) Thinking and learning skills, Vol. 1. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Frank, B. M. (1984). Effect of FID and study technique on learning from a lecture. American Educational Research Journal, 21(3), 669-678.

Goodenough, D. R., & Karp, S. A. (1961). Field dependence and intellectual functioning. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 63(2), 241-246.

Kail, R., & Pellegrino, J. W. (1985). Human intelligence: Perspective and prospects. New York: W. H. Freeman.

Mason, J., with Burton, L., & Stacey, K. (1982). Thinking mathematically. Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley.

Palincsar, A. S. (1986). Dialogue an scaffolded instruction. Educational Psychologist, 21(1-2), 73.

Pitts, M. M., & Thompson, B. (1984). Cognitive styles as mediating variables in inferential comprehension. Reading Research Quarterly, 19(4).

Shipman, S., & Shipman, V. C. (1985). Cognitive styles: Some conceptual, methodological, and applied issues. In E. W. Gordon (Ed.), Review of Research in Education, 12, 237.

Sternberg, R. J. (1985). Beyond IQ: A triarchic theory of human intelligence. New York: Cambridge University Press.

-----. (1986). Intelligence applied: Understanding and increasing your intellectual skills. San Diego: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich.

Whimbey, A., & Lochhead, J. (1986). Problem solving and comprehension. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Witkin, H. A., Moore, C. A., Goodenough, D. R., & Cox, P. W. (1977). Field-dependent and field-independent cognitive styles and their educational implications. Review of Educational Research, 47(1), 1-64.

Wittrock, M. C. (1974). A generative model of mathematics learning. Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 5(4), 181-196.

For a complete list of references, write to Charlotte Farr, Department of Curriculum & Instruction, University of Wyoming, Box 3374, University Station, Laramie, Wyoming 82071.

The Etiology of Stress upon the Adult Learner of Afro-American Descent: Its Affect upon Retention in an Adult Education Program

Emilye Hunter Fields, M.A.
Institute for Cultural Understanding
and
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb, Illinois
U.S.A.

Abstract

Stressful familial and household settings can impact negatively upon the retention of students in adult education programs. Marginal populations such as those in the United States among lower-economic, Afro-American segments of this society frequently do not complete adult education programs due to the powerful deterrents caused by social and economic stress.

INTRODUCTION

This discussion will focus upon the case of a woman named, Elizabeth J. who is forty-seven years of age, a grandmother, a widow, and not physically well, yet Elizabeth is a student in an adult education program. Further, Elizabeth is a good student, a committed student and a student hopeful for a future life in a broader society. Elizabeth cannot accept that life does not hold much for her at this time. She believes she still has a quality life ahead of her because she has not had the life she planned for herself as a younger woman.

Yet, what are her possibilities of success? Can the many constraints upon Elizabeth's time, the many stresses in her life, the various problems which plague her, daily, be held in abeyance while Elizabeth completes her education?

Through Elizabeth's case, this paper will present a predictor model of adult education success which can be useful in determining the causes and potential resolution of stress and its related syndromes which work against student success. In addition, implication for the usage of the model in program design will also be presented.

Symbiosis, a biological model, (Symbiosis. Cheng: 1969.) will be discussed on the basis of its potential utilization in the social sciences. The transference of this model demonstrates the insights to be derived from the interdisciplinary utilization of established models between one science and another. In so transferring the model, one gains the knowledge base of an established field, thus uncovering new ideation for the recipient environment.

Predictor Model of Success in an Adult Education Program

Our plan is two-fold: we will propose a model which will predict stressful familial relations and we will utilize this model as an adult education predictor model of success. This adult education model provides information which may help students succeed even in the face of the stress so prevalent in today's world.

Socializing a Biological Construct

The biological construct: symbiosis, lends itself to application in a social science context. Particular to symbiosis are the dependencies formed by living organisms in which they are understood to require each other to greater or lesser degrees in their survival.

CHENG'S MODEL
Symbiosis: A Biological Construct

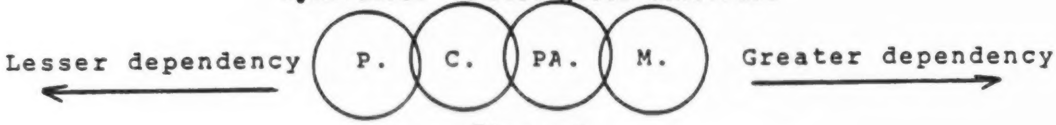


Figure 1

In human societies, we human beings, being organic and of the animal kingdom,, certainly do also have symbiotic relationships, however, ours are both conscious and instinctual. The concept of sociality refers to the conscious process of interacting with other human beings. In doing so, humans may build dependency relationships. The use of symbiosis in this context will be as a socialized model borrowed from biology (which I term socio-symbiosis).

As a vehicle for illustration of this socialized, biological model, I will discuss the case history of a middle-aged, Afro-American, adult education student, Elizabeth J. With Elizabeth's case, it will be demonstrated that human relationships mirror the biological relationships made between organisms in nature. By parallelling symbiosis with a social equivalent, we discover a new diagnostic model applicable to adult education.

Eizabeth J. - Personal History

Elizabeth J., age 47 is a middle-aged, Afro-American woman. Elizabeth is under doctor's care and is being treated for nervousness and fatigue, inability to sleep, and loss of appetite. She is receiving various forms of medication for her physical conditions. Elizabeth lives with her son and has threatened to move "back South" if she cannot find some peace in her son's home. When Elizabeth was 15, she took the proverbial trip to the "North" to better herself. Although accompanied by her Aunt, Elizabeth was essentially "put on her own." This meant, in 1955, either the "streets" or the "church." Elizabeth was encouraged to choose the church.

Stress and related factors surfaced in daily social interchanges within the family, on the job, in school, on the streets and so on during Elizabeth's life from the age of 15 until the present. Now that Elizabeth is 47 and living with her son, she feels she has earned the right to give something to her own life. Even though she is loved, she is seen by her family as having little ability to add to the family's survival since she has no apparent relationship to the everyday work-a-day world of the breadwinners.

Yet, a closer and perhaps different inquiry into her relationship to the family's economic structure reveals not only her real place in the economic scheme of things but points up her great contribution. Elizabeth is stressed and is in constant conflict within the family because like other viable members of the family, she feels she has a "say" but is unacknowledged as a policy maker.

Elizabeth's case is representative of hundreds of thousands of Afro-American women. In addition to a life overflowing with family responsibility, Elizabeth has been attending an adult education program for almost six months. Will she complete it?

The adult education program is in a small alternative school in a surburban environment. The suburb is mainly Afro-American (60%) lower and middle class economically. Elizabeth's life in the community is full. She attends church, works in a senior citizen's program as a volunteer and as well takes care of her family responsibility.

Can Elizabeth control the stresses in her life or will the stress of so much activity which requires such a high level of output cause her to leave her educational program? With the hope of determining the possibility of Elizabeth's success, and to better support her in her quest to educate herself, the socio-symbiotic model will be utilized as a predictor model of success in her adult education program. What is socio-symbiosis?

Socio-symbiosis is an analytical tool which aids in looking at the socio-economic relationships in the family. It has been developed from its biological counterpart, symbiosis. The definition of symbiosis is "living together" in close dependency upon another. The tool socio-symbiosis will be useful in the analysis of econo-family group relations in Elizabeth's extended Black family.

In functioning, extended families where parents are frequently unavailable for the small but disastrous crises, one soon sees that productive operation of the family may depend entirely upon the least attractive (i.e. in terms of economic usefulness) senior member of the family who can either prevent or handle these daily problems. This will be illustrated in the discussion to follow as will the following terms: phoresism, commensalism, parasitism, and mutualism, (after Cheng's usage of the terms in his biological model.) However, the definitions used here will be the socialized equivalency of the biological terms.

Phoresism. Phoresis is a non-obligatory interaction on the part of at least one individual in the relationship. This individual feels no responsibility to the other and interacts with little interest in the other's survival. The symbol for the phoresic interaction is a circle. This symbol will become more important when placed with others in a family schema. (See Figure 2).

Commensalism. In this relationship, individuals are said to "eat from the same table" (the Greek linguistic definition of commensalism). We find the root of community, communal and so on in this term. In the system of socio-symbiosis, commensalism is a goal-oriented relationship. Individuals "participate in the same goal" or to interpret further, interact and work for the same purpose. A family that is held together by each individual doing his/her part is a commensalistic unit. The symbol for commensalism is a circle with two arrows. One arrow points towards the goal, another towards the person or persons operating within the commensalistic arrangement. (See Figure 3).

Figure 2

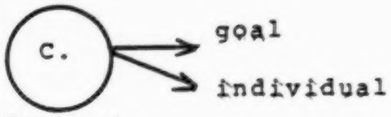


Figure 3

Parasitism and Mutualism. The last two relationships within the socio-symbiosis system are the parasitic and the mutualistic. In parasitism, one organism attempts to gain from another (i.e., take resources) without a return of the resource. One individual becomes the resource, the other the receiver of the resource, or one becomes the host, the other the parasite. The symbol for parasitism is the circle with one arrow leading out from the circle. This signifies that the parasite is going to a host for a resource. (See Figure 4).

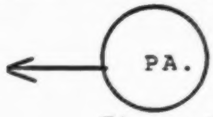


Figure 4

In mutualism, the last of the relationships in this system of socio-symbiosis, the relationship is a mutually agreed upon "using" of each individual in the relationship. From another perspective, it is mutual parasitism, involving the use of each other's individual resources or some pool of resources. The symbol for this component is the circle with two arrows. One arrow leads out, one arrow leads in, signifying that the mutualistic relationship always has a return or exchange of resources. (See Figure 5).

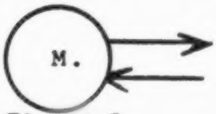


Figure 5

Principles of Symbiosis. Two principles which grow out of the socio-symbiosis analysis are: Principle I: The principle of fragility of the parasitic relationship. This principle is most important in predicting conflict and stress. A parasitic arrangement cannot work for long, because it is predicated on the unilateral extraction of resources. Within this context, the resourceful individual will ultimately rebel as the resource dwindles. When this happens, tension accumulates within the environment while the unsatisfied parasite attempts to realign the circumstances for new satisfaction. Principle II: The principle of compound stress is illustrated by determining: how burdened are the individuals who rely upon the already stressed individuals?

Elizabeth's Family in the North.

In the North, living currently in the home of Elizabeth's son are Elizabeth, the son, his wife and child and Elizabeth's 17-year old daughter. (See Figure 6 and Figure 6A).

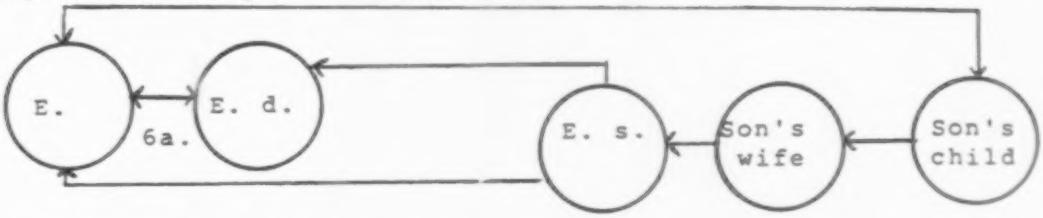


Figure 6. Elizabeth's household in the North.

Elizabeth and her daughter are a distinct family unit. (See Figure 6A).

Two provocators of stress have been discussed under the heading of principles of symbiosis. They are: (1) The principle of fragility and (2) the principle of compound stress. Both may be at the root of conflict in the family.

Elizabeth's Current Life.

Elizabeth had recently moved back to her son's home from her own home in the South which she had lived in for only two years. Elizabeth's extended family includes her sister, her sister's daughter and the daughter's two children which she left in the South. (See Figure 7). These individuals occupy Elizabeth's property in Alabama.

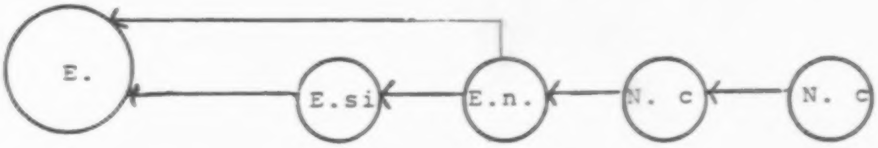


Figure 7. Elizabeth's family in the South.

Elizabeth sends money home for the care of her property. Yet, Elizabeth's property is slowly deteriorating. Even though Elizabeth realizes how her money is being misused, she does not insist upon its proper usage "out of her good heart." Since the son is unable to work, Elizabeth's pension is also used by his family. This places Elizabeth under severe stress. Instead of relaxing in her later years, she has taken responsibility for the care of herself and all the members of her family, on a mere three hundred and fifty dollars a month, representing disability income and food stamps.

Yet, she receives little respect and almost no consideration from the members of her family. Elizabeth has hypertension, trouble with her eyes and some deafness. Her son treats her fairly well but mainly gripes all day about his plight. Elizabeth feels protective towards him as she always has. The son uses her money for alcohol and "dirty" books. Despite this pressure, Elizabeth comes to adult education to learn to read better so that she can get a job!

Elizabeth feels used and yet needed at the same time. Her life contains the classical contradictory ingredients which causes hypertension in individuals. She is in an "untenable" position; one she cannot endure and one she cannot leave.

If we apply "Principle I," the principle of fragility of parasitic relationships, to this family construct, we see that Elizabeth's sister and that branch of the family, are completely parasitically dependent upon Elizabeth. This situation will naturally change since parasitic relations deteriorate. Principle II, the principle of compounded stress, shows Elizabeth's son to be the second most stressed individual relying upon her. To all who may observe the scene, the son appears to have all the responsibility for supporting his family. Yet, it is clear, after a deeper analysis, that Elizabeth is the economic backbone of both families. She is the one who is under a continuous and unresolvable stress.

Social symbiosis as a tool for analyzing family relationships works as a predictive device for surfacing, not only potentially stressful situations, but those which are the current cause for familial tension.

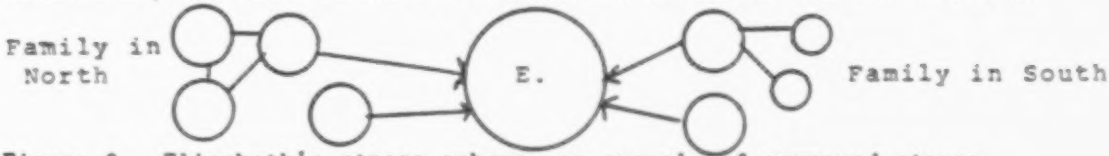


Figure 8. Elizabeth's stress schema, an example of compound stress.

The following are factors which could aid program designers in their appreciation of any stressed adult's life.

Recommendations for Adult Education

Program Design:

1. Incorporate quasi- to full case history approaches in developing student records, utilizing the socio-symbiotic tool,

2. Utilize placement instruments which consider comprehensively the skills developed by the adult in surviving in society, (which may not have academic characteristics),

3. Understand the particular plight of Third World adults who do not use institutional supports with sophistication, but rather, rely upon individualistic, and personal contacts for resource (i.e., do not expect counseling programs and other services which are there to support the adult student to be used advantageously by the student without demonstrating to the student that those who operate them are socio-culturally sensitive),

4. Design curriculae which allow the student entrance and exit into the adult education program, without penalty. In other words, curriculae should allow auto-instructional, self-pacing rather than formalized beginning sequences and ending points, and

5. Assume, when designing programs for marginal populations, that the burden of life may be so pressing upon the adult that to attend one's adult education program may be the only place the adult receives comfort, rest, nurturing and encouragement. If one makes this assumption and subsequently designs, within the curriculae of the program, ways by which the adult can begin to build community and authentic relationships with program professionals, the chance for "retention to completion" is greater for the adult.

Hermeneutics, Critical Theory and the Biographical Method as an alternative in Adult Education Research

by Dr. Matthias Finger, University of Geneva[1]

Abstract

The present paper is the result of a conceptual research in which I have tried to lay down the foundations of an alternative adult education research practice, given form in the so-called "biographical method", and based on solid epistemological foundations.

Introduction

In a first chapter I will give a brief summary of the state of the debate in adult education research. The second chapter deals with what I think should be the privileged object of this research, i.e. the adults' formative processes. I will argue that the study of these processes requires a research approach, which actual social science methods do not provide. In a third chapter the epistemological foundations of such an alternative adult education research practice will be presented; I will show how hermeneutics, radicalized by critical theorist Jürgen Habermas, provide a particularly adequate epistemological approach for the study of adults' formative processes. In a last chapter these epistemological foundations will be translated into an adult education research methodology, which I have called the "biographical method". The philosophy of this method will be outlined.

The state of the debate in adult education research

Among all the social sciences, adult education is certainly, at least potentially, the most open field for debates about research alternatives; this is due to its close contact with practice, as well as to the fact that adult education is not (yet) a completely institutionalized academic discipline. I understand my paper as a contribution to such **debates about research alternatives.**

One can speak of an empirically based adult education research with a theoretical perspective almost only in the United States; more theoretical and less empirically based debates also take place in western Germany, where Ruprecht has identified the following four paradigms of contemporary adult education research:[2]
- the pragmatic-phenomenological paradigm,
- the empirical-statistical paradigm,
- the action or actor-oriented paradigm, and
- the interpretative paradigm. The first, mainly descriptive, paradigm is specific to the german tradition of "Bildung" of the last two centuries; today, this paradigm is about to disappear from empirical research.

The other three paradigms can all be found in empirical american adult education research; the empirical-statistical paradigm is certainly the dominant one, whereas the actor-oriented paradigm - which's aim is to promote an emancipatory or critical adult education - is probably, at the present moment, still the least spread research paradigm.

---

[1] Subdivision Adult Education, Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences, University of Geneva, 1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland.

[2] Horst RUPRECHT,n "Erwachsenenbildung als Gegenstand der Forschung", in eb Berichte und Informationen, Vol.15, No.33, 1983/1, pp.2-3.

None of these research paradigms are specific to adult education research; all of them, like the debates among them, simply reflect the state of the debate in the social sciences in general, and the state of the debate in sociology in particular. This can be illustrated by the two main debates in contemporary social science research, i.e. the **debate between a qualitative and a quantitative approach** on the one hand, and the so-called **"positivist-debate"** between an empirical-analytical and critical-hermeneutical approach on the other hand. Both debates can also be found in adult education research.[3]

Although both of these debates have a strong alternative epistemological potential, they have been conducted up to now on a superficial, and to my opinion **insufficient**, level: if the debate between qualitative and quantitative research has today taken an exclusively methodological turn, the "positivist-debate" instead has remained on a purely political level, where only the (political) use of social science knowledge, but not its very nature, has been put into question. Therefore, as long as adult education research just copies what is going on in sociology, the limits of these debates will simply be reproduced.

In order to overcome the epistemological and methodological limits of these debates, it is therefore necessary to define the **specificity of adult education research**. On the basis of this specificity, the actually existing social science research paradigms and methods should be critically examined; if necessary, new, epistemologically solid, adult education research methodologies should be elaborated.

The specific object of adult education research: adults' formative processes

To my opinion, the specificity of adult education research should be defined as a result of the questions and the problems the adult educators, the so-called "**practicioners**", encounter in their adult education practice. But what are the main questions of these practicioners today?

- It is first the question of **evaluation**: despite of all kind of evaluation techniques, adult educators find it difficult to limit evaluation to a "product", and to evaluate so to say independently of the person. They know that ultimately the best evaluation is the one which is closest to the **adults' formative processes**.
- It is second the question the "**permanent education** movement" has raised: if education can occur during the whole life and at any place, the practicioner would like to know how this "learning during the life course"[4] exactly happens and hwo it can be brought about.
- It is third the question of the **"totality of formation"**,[5] which is already implicit in such ideas as "learning during the life course" and "learning from experience". Practicioners know that adults cannot be treated as pupils; that means that their (life- and learning-) **experiences** and their concrete life-situation have not only to be respected, but moreover to be taken into account in adult education. The ultimate aim of the practicioner is to get a

---

[3] The first debate is may be best formulated in the field of adult education research by Kathleen ROCKWILL, whereas the second debate is at least implicit in the works of Jack MEZIROW and Stephen BROOKFIELD, though it unfortunately has not yet been translated into a real adult education research debate.

[4] This is a translation from the german "Lernen im Lebenslauf"; see: Horst SIEBERT et al., **Lernen im Lebenslauf**. Zur biographischen Orientierung der Erwachsenenbildung, Bonn, Deutscher Volkshochschul-Verband, 1985.

[5] See: Franz PÖGGELER, "Entwicklung und Bedeutungswandel von Methoden ganzheitlicher Bildung", in **eb Berichte und Informationen**, Vol.18, No.1, 1986, pp.4-6.

learning process into motion, which only can succeed if it can be linked to the adult's more general **formative process.**

One must conclude that all the practicioners' questions lead to the same object adult education research should look at, i.e. the **adults' formative processes.** Unfortunately, this has not been done as far as now, neither by the empirical-statistical, nor by the interpretative, nor by the actor-oriented research paradigm. The reason why this is so is, to my opinion, less due to a lack of awareness of the importance of the adults' formative processes, but rather to the fact that **we do not have, at the present moment, adequate epistemological and methodological means**, nor intellectual tools, to tackle with these formative processes. In particular, this is due to the fact that the **research perspective**, which is required to study the adults' formative processes, is **incompatible** with the dominant social science research methodologies. This research perspective first needs to understand **retroperspectively** how adults have formed themselves; it secondly needs to adequately take into account the **subjectivity** of these adults whose formative processes are studied, and it thirdly needs to provide a **holistic approach** of the totality of the person and his/her life.

Instead, the dominant social sciences are not only highly specialized, which automatically leads to a sectorial approach, but they also evacuate the subjectivity, not to talk about the fact that their main research perspective is prospective, i.e. most of the time developmentalist.
These reasons make it evident why another adult education research methodology, based on **other epistemological foundations**, is required for the study of adults' formative processes. The stake of such an alternative epistemology and research methodology is not only **adequateness** to the object, but moreover **efficiency** in adult education practice.

Though they point into the right epistemological direction, the interpretative and the actor-oriented research paradigms are by far not sufficient to adequately study the adults' formative processes. This "right direction" is to my opinion the one of the epistemological foundation, by which both of these paradigms historically have been influenced, i.e. the epistemology of **hermeneutics, the art or the science of understanding meaning.**[6]
The hermeneutical epistemology seems to me particularly able to account for the **meaning** (learning) experiences have for adults, for the **subjectivity**, as well as for the **totality** of an adult's formative process.

Towards an alternative epistemology in adult education research

Contemporary hermeneutics is the result of a long evolution, which leads from the interpretation of the Holy Bible, to the interpretation of texts in general, of persons, of cultures and of "life" ("Leben").
Of course, not all hermeneutical conceptions and theories are relevant for our enterprise; let me just concentrate on these (german) authors and their conceptions, which to my opinion are most relevant.

Friedrich SCHLEIERMACHER (1768-1834) is generally considered as being at the **origin of modern hermeneutics**: he takes hermeneutics out of its purely theological realm and applies it to all kind of texts, and more generally to life. The main key concepts and conceptions of hermeneutics can almost all be traced back to Schleiermacher.[7]

---

[6] As an introduction to hermeneutics: Josef BLEICHER, Contemporary hermeneutics. Hermeneutics as method, philosophy and critique, London, Routledge and Kegan, 1980; Richard PALMER, Hermeneutics. Interpretation theory in Schleiermacher, Dilthey, Heidegger and Gadamer, Evanston, Northwestern University Press, 1969.

Wilhelm DILTHEY (1833-1911), Schleiermacher's pupil and biographer, is a second central figure, at least for our research perspective:[8] he is the one who most clearly considers hermeneutics as being the epistemological basis for the **human sciences**, as epistemologically distinct from the natural sciences. Dilthey therefore defines the **basic concepts** of a hermeneutical approach of the human reality; his conceptual categories are particularly adequate to the study of adults' formative processes, since Dilthey is mainly concerned with understanding the (spiritual) life of persons, i.e. with a rather psychological approach. Nevertheless, on the epistemological and methodological level Dilthey's conception remains traditional and stays sometimes even behind Schleiermacher. In particular, Dilthey is looking for a rather positivist approach of social life, which he thinks can be studied objectively, i.e. independently of the life of the person who tries to understand it.

In this respect, the conception of the contemporary philosopher Hans-Georg GADAMER (born 1900) is to my opinion the most essential contribution.[9] Gadamer does not believe in the existence of an objective social reality, which could be understood as such; therefore an approach of the social reality based on understanding inevitably faces the problem of the so-called "**hermeneutical circle**", i.e. the problem of the subjective pre-understanding which conditions the way any subject-matter ("Sache") is understood. Remember taht positivists precisley consider this pre-understanding as an obstacle to social science research. For Gadamer the opposite is the case; let me develop his argument in four steps:

- According to him, all understanding is **prejudiced** and therefore **subjective**: in opposition to positivists, Gadamer considers subjectivism and prejudice as being a **necessary condition** for understanding. However, subjectivism does not mean that our pre-understanding is purely individual; to a large extent it also reflects the society, the culture, the history and more generally the **tradition** the individual is (linguistically) socialized and embedded in. In other words, one can precisely understand **because of** being subjective and moreover because of being socially, culturally and historically rooted. All these perspectives do **enrich** understanding.
- Understanding consist of putting the subject-matter which is to be understood into a relation with the life-world, i.e. with the concrete life-situation of the one who understands. This means that there is no abstract understanding, which could exist independently of the (social and cultural) life-history of the person, independently of one's concrete situation and independently of one's concrete questions. Understanding has to do with the **application** of concrete questions to concrete, life-relevant, situations.
- But, if the subject-matter and the one who understand are both embedded in tradition, where do then understanding and knowledge come from? According to Gadamer, they result from the encounter between those two traditions or horizons in the **dialogue**. True understanding will take the form of a **consensus** or a "**fusion of the horizons**" between the participants to the

---

[7] See: Manfred FRANK (Ed.), **Schleiermacher**. Hermeneutik und Kritik, Frankfurt, Suhrkamp, 1977.

[8] See: H.P. RICKMAN, **Wilhelm Dilthey**. Pioneer of the human studies, Berkeley, University of California Pres, 1979.

[9] Hans-Georg GADAMER, **Truth and method**, New York, Seabury Press, 1975 (1960); Georgia WARNKE, **Gadamer**. Hermeneutics, tradition and reason, Oxford, Polity Press, 1987.

dialogue with regard to the subject-matter; true understanding is therefore the result of a **formative process** of these participants.

- The criteria which guide these formative processes of the participants are the search for consensus on the one hand and the **anticipation of completeness** or unity of the text (or subject-matter) on the other hand. In other words, the text is assumed to be **internally coherent** and one has to try to understand it as a unity.

The german philosopher and sociologist Jürgen HABERMAS (born 1929) has, to my opinion, significantly contributed to hermeneutics, and this by specifying certain aspects of Gadamer's conception in the light of **critical theory.**[10] He raises as an objection that all participants to the dialogue might be caught in the same set of prejudices; they all might be victims of the same **ideology**. In this case, their consensus would not be true, but in fact "systematically distorted". It is true that Gadamer, who stresses the role of tradition in understanding, does not have any answer to this problem except "time" (i.e. time will produce new historical horizons and therefore new ways of understanding). Habermas' conception offers here a way out of this new type of hermeneutical circle: in fact, on the basis of universal linguistic pragmatics Habermas claims that each participant to the dialogue automatically anticipates an **"ideal (dominance-free) speech situation"**; this anticipation allows one to step out of the hermeneutical circle and to practice true and **critical understanding**. I refer here to Habermas' concept of "Diskurs" and its corresponding theory of "communicative rationality". In other words, it is the anticipation of this ideal and the corresponding practice of critical reflection which make the participants overcome the limits of their shared prejudices and of their embeddedness in tradition.[11]

My personal research has consisted of identifying the most relevant hermeneuticians and of crystallizing their corresponding epistemological conceptions; on this basis I have elaborated and successfully practiced an adult education research methodology, which I have called the **"biographical method"**.[12]

The biographical method, a means to understand the adults' formative processes

The biographical method I have developed is a purely hermeneutical method, based on the above mentioned hermeneutical principles.[13]

This method focuses on the **study of adults' formative processes**; these processes are the subject-matter which is to be understood through a **dialogue** (Habermas' "Diskurs") among researcher(s) and actor(s). The actor, who's formative process is to be understood, has of course a **particularly intimate knowledge** of the subject matter, a knowledge which takes the form of sometimes reflected, but mostly unreflected, (learning) **experiences** ("Erlebnisse", "Erfahrungen"). Since these experiences are entirely part of the life or the biography (therefore the "biographical method") of an adult, "learning experiences" are at the same time "**life-experiences**". In the dialogue, the adult is therefore critically reflecting about his/her formative life-experiences; the aim of this critical reflection is to understand how these formative life-experiences relate to one's formative process. The **(retro-)perspective** which gives a meaning to this whole enterprise is the one of the actor's actual concrete learning situation; this is the gadamerian aspect of understanding through concrete application. As Gadamer also shows, understandingin the dialogue can only be conceived **as a learning process.** In other words, this learning dimension of understanding, which of course also applies to the researcher, is a **necessary condition** for the production of hermeneutical knowledge. Moreover, the biographical method also makes the following typically hermeneutical assumptions:

---

[10] Jürgen HABERMAS, **Zur Logik der Sozialwissenschaften**, Frankfurt, Suhrkamp, 1982.

[11] Nevertheless, Habermas thinks that part of the systematically distorted dialogue cannot be overcome by critical reflection only; this concerns in particular distortions which have taken the form of historically institutionalized power-relations on the one hand and psychic troubles on the other hand. Overcoming these distortions requires, according to Habermas, positive social science knowledge. I do not share this aspect of Habermas' conception, since it is not clear to me where such knowledge would come from, if not from understanding.

[12] This has been done in my PhD in adult education, on the basis of which I am actually preparing two books: one on the epistemological foundations of the biographical method as a method of adult education research, and the other one on the application of this biographical method to the research on adults' formative processes.

[13] See: Matthias FINGER, **Biographie et herméneutique. Les aspects épistémologiques et méthodologiques de la méthode biographique**, Montréal, University of Montreal / FEP, 1984.

- First, the gadamerian **anticipation of completeness** or unity, where an internal coherence of one's life and of one's corresponding formative process is automatically assumed.
- Second, the habermasian anticipation of an "**ideal speech situation**", which considers each participant to the dialogue capable of critically reflecting one's own ideological and psychic distortions, and therefore able to produce an understanding which is free of these distortions.

The here outlined approach, mainly based on Gadamer's and Habermas' hermeneutics, is to my opinion more adequate than Schleiermacher's or Dilthey's approaches, which try to understand by reconstructing and reliving the original construction (in our case the formative process). Nevertheless, Schleiermacher and even more Dilthey have layed down the **conceptual tools** one has to use when dealing in a hermeneutical manner with one person's formative process, and more generally with one person's life. I think in particular of the concept of "**experience**" ("Erlebnis") and its relation to "**life**" ("Leben"), as well as its relation to **understanding** and **learning.**

In conclusion I must say that the biographical method, which is fully based on these conceptual tools, as well as on the more recent tradition of hermeneutical understanding, certainly announces the **emergence of a new, hermeneutical, paradigm in adult education research.** The specificity of this paradigm (compared to the other research paradigms presented in the first chapter) lies to my opinion in the fact that it fully **respects the subjectivity of the actor/adult,** as well as the **totality of the person** and his/her formative process. Furthermore, this new paradigm attributes a crucial role to the actor's subjectivity in the research process. But probably most characteristic is the fact, that this new paradigm not only allows, but even **requires learning during the research process as a necessary condition for understanding** (one's formative processes).

A FRAMEWORK FOR PRACTITIONER RESEARCH

DR. COLIN FLETCHER

KEITH FULLMAN

MARY HEDDERWICK

Department of Social Policy
Cranfield Institute of Technology

ABSTRACT

Academic and practitioner perspectives are of equal status. Their relationships may be as domination, diffusion or dialectic and vary during the stages of teaching, fieldwork, making the thesis and its examination. What, then, are the issues of sharing "practice-wisdom"?

Most research in the U.K. is done by practitioners studying for Diplomas and Higher Degrees. Whilst it is accepted that mature professionals have an understanding it is not always the case that their understanding is equivalent to those of academics. Thus, the first step in developing practitioner research is to give the same status to practitioner perspectives as is given to academic perspectives (see Table One).

Table One:

Perspectives and Their Correspondences

Academic Aspects	Practitioner Aspects
Theoretical problem	Practical problem
Why is it so?	How can it change?
Impersonal methods	Personal and professional involvements
Key concepts	Key issues
Literature relevant	Descriptive accounts relevant
Politics peripheral	Politics central
Proof/illumination Produced	Utility process during and after study.

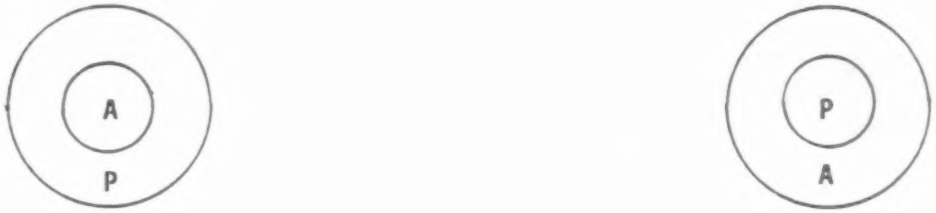
If the distinctiveness of the perspectives can be accepted then the second step is to see how they can be related. There are at least four alternative relationships but they group into three types; dominations, diffusions and dialectics. (See Diagram One.)

Diagram One:

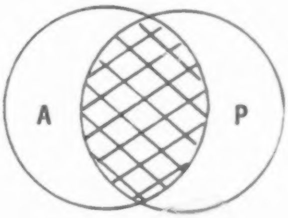
Relationships Between Perspectives

(These are not Venn Diagrams but depictions of centrality and peripherality.)

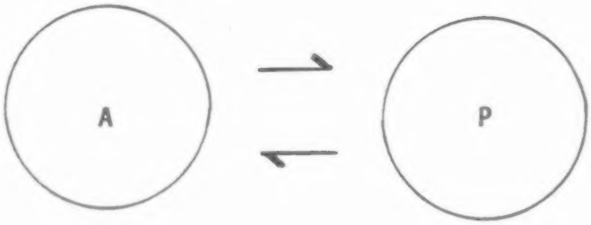
(i) Dominations



(ii) Diffusions



(iii) Dialectics



In dominations the core perspective drives the research and the peripheral perspective adds colour or gravity, significance or poignancy. One embellishes the other.

In diffusions overlaps are encouraged particularly between problem statements, concepts and issues, proofs and utilities.

In dialectics one perspective disputes (with) the other. The argument may rage within and between both tutor and student.

The models apply differently to the stages of postgraduate work just as the relative spaces or emphases upon academic and practitioner can be changed.

What matters is that departments, tutors and students know the alternatives which genuinely exist and explicitly grasp the risks of the partnership in which they are engaged.

The four stages at which models need to be mutually addressed are:

Teaching times	- what are the topics of learning? - how it takes place? - the pedagogy of student-learner-teacher? - recognising errors and criticism?
Developing fieldwork	- where and how to begin? - when to analyse? - how to participate?
Making the thesis	- who is the readership? - how readable? - book or thesis?
Examining the thesis	- involvement or ideology? - contemporary significance? - bulk or beauty?

The questions to be asked at each stage do assume a learning partnership; a respect for the "practice wisdom" gained from experience within each perspective. As with all participation there are more risks and more stresses than there are in following recipes. A safe technique demands less thought or at least less proof of knowing what one is talking about. An original work of partnership can be bumpy throughout the relationship and lumpy on its construction. Practitioners can be economical with the truth, academics can be petty with the inconsequential. The worst that can be said of each perspective is that it sets out to prove what is already believed. The achievement of aligning the two may be, apart from methodological innovations, a serious attempt to avoid the obvious. The methodological innovation may be more significant than at first sight because, rather than practitioners borrowing academics´ methods and then conforming to their conventions, there may be practitioners´ ways of getting to know, which academics have so far only half acknowledged. To date involvement is accepted as a mode of insight, beyond that the ideas mobilized in innovations may exceed capacity of theories to encompass them.

One point, therefore, of creating the space for diffusions and dialectics particularly is to allow for the recognition of partial and contradictory, principled and gifted practice theory. Such a point has not been achieved. There is nowhere in the U.K. which is dedicated to the centrality of practitioner aspects and the peripherality of academic aspects.

* * * * * * *

The context of the above remarks is the present state of staff-thinking at the Department of Social Policy, Cranfield Institute of Technology. The MPhil programme has been running since 1974 and the PhD since 1983. There are 40 MPhil students and 18 PhD students all with at least 5 years professional experience and from a wide spread of the public and voluntary sectors. We would emphasise that this is the present state of thinking not the end-state of an orthodoxy. It is what we have learned through working with practitioners and by trying to develop practitioner research. It has particular relevance for the non-profit sectors where there can be values of enrichment and empowerment that are as strong as, or stronger than, those of efficiency. In some respects a commitment to practitioner research is, in itself, a commitment to enrichment and empowerment. In addition to the difficulties and risks of relating the perspectives there are the disputes and repercussions with both academic standards and political realities.

CRITICAL THINKING AND CRITICAL THEORY IN ADULT EDUCATION

COLIN GRIFFIN Hillcroft College

ABSTRACT: The aim of this paper is to examine the claim that critical thinking and perspective transformation derive from critical social theory or critical social science. It is argued that in fact they are much more likely to reflect the paradigms of humanistic psychology, and rest upon unexamined assumptions about the relationship between personal emancipation and social change.

Critical thinking is the latest fashionable challenge, both to adult learners and to adult educators constantly in search of new professional roles to play (Brookfield, 1987). The aim of this paper is to challenge the assertion sometimes made (e.g. Marsick, 1987) that this conception of critical thinking is really based upon critical social science or critical social theory. Indeed it will be suggested that it is not based upon social theory of any kind, being profoundly psychologistic in its construction of society. For here society itself tends to be conceived in reductionist terms: as the threat to individuality posed by culture and socialization rather than as the historical and structural forms of social relations whose content is primarily economic and political. History, the state and the economy are fundamental concepts of any genuinely social science, however phenomenologically they may be constructed, but they are conspicuous by their absence from the concept of critical thinking currently being advocated as an object of adult learning and its facilitation.

Critical thinking is in fact little more than the old idea of liberal education for democratic citizenship in new guise, more self-consciously informed by humanistic psychology and sited much more evidently in workplace management contexts of adult learning. Its theoretical underpinning is derived directly from such influential figures as Rogers and Maslow, and familiar psychological constructs of personal growth, authenticity, self-actualization, self-direction, peak experiences and so on. Reflective and dialectical dimensions are constructed from an oppositional (i.e. traditionally liberal) concept of the relation between individual and society: critical thinking is a strategy of resistance on the part of individuals against over-socialization or cultural over-determination, rationally balanced by an acceptance of the reality of existing social relations of production and power.

The unresolved question, both for critical thinking and traditional liberalism, remains that of the relation between individual and social transformation, personal and political emancipation. In short, the absence of authentic social structural concepts of history, state or power empties analytic concepts of much of this critical function, so that 'transformation', 'adaptation', 'reflectivity', dialectics', or even 'criticism' itself convey only an 'individual and society' meaning rather than one explicable wholly in terms of social science or social theory. The implication that generally individuals' thinking is not critical, or at least that the capacity for critical thinking is not sufficiently realized, does not reflect any kind of social science analysis at all: attributing uncritical thinking to the mass of the population (and if this were not the case how could there be an important role for the adult educator?) is an attribution of individual pathology rather than a discovery of critical social science.

Thus, although critical thinking and perspective transformation through adult learning have been attributed to critical social theory, and specifically to Habermas (Merizow, 1981), in reality this is only a new manifestation of personal growth psychology. According to the adult education usage, society is constructed as a value system rather than as a structure of social relations in economic and political terms, and the relation between individual and society reflects a funtionalist and evolutionary view of mutual adaptation and of the ubiquity of personal and social change. Critical thinking reflects no problematic analysis of economic or political social relations, and the claim that it is connected with democracy through critical social science analysis should be viewed with considerable scepticism. Whatever view one takes of critical social science and its derivatives, whether of the Frankfurt school or Habermas himself, or Freire or Gramsci, it is difficult to evade some analysis of the social division of labour and the distribution of wealth and power which are associated with capitalist or other relations of production. It is difficult, in other words, to be a critical theorist without engaging in some critical analysis of economic relations, the distribution of power, the role of the state, and the different historical forms in which these have been expressed.

In fact, there never was a single tradition of critical theory, and it tends to be resistant to summary (Connerton, 1976, pp. 22-39). Nevertheless, it is possible to speak of a central core of issues which identify it as an intellectual movement, and its origins are generally located in the establishment in 1923 of the Institute for Social Research associated with the University of Frankfurt. The 'Frankfurt School' were primarily represented in the work of Max Horkheimer, Theodor Adorno and Herbert Marcuse, whilst that of Jurgen Habermas later continued the tradition in modified form. These four are usually taken to be the 'central figures' of critical theory (Held, 1980, p.15).

In order to see critical theory in relation to critical thinking, it may be useful to summarize its central features as these have recently been described (Gibson, 1986, pp.3 - 16). In the first place, as has been suggested, we are looking at a diverse tradition and it would be more accurate to speak of 'critical theories'. The emphasis of them all was, however, highly theoretical, and they were all preoccupied with social theory and theory construction for its own sake. All were agreed, too, that social theory is logically distinct from theories in natural science: in a science of humanity 'facts' are socially constructed, and critical social science, as distinct from positivism, recognizes and acknowledges relativity and subjectivity in its object and methods. The critical theorists were, however, preoccupied with autonomy and the emanicipation of oppressed individuals and groups and, as a school of Marxist thought, conceived society in terms of the irreconcilable conflicts of interest which lie beneath a veneer of harmony. Unlike other varieties of Marxism, however, critical theorists asserted the relative autonomy of culture from the economic base of society, and were concerned with the study of culture and human creativity as such. In contrast with stereotypical Marxism too, critical theorists emphasized the significance of individual identity and purpose, and the origins of what has since become known as cultural studies can be traced to the concern of critical theorists with ideology and its permeation of everyday life in the form of the ordinary and familiar commonsense ideas by which individuals construct their day-to-day worlds.

They were concerned with aesthetics as an expression of human creativity, and influenced by Freudian psychoanalytic theory, perceiving an analogy between the conflicting subconscious forces of the personality and the hidden conflicts of interest which lie below the surface of society itself.

It is easy to see how this kind of social theory could make a humanistic and liberal appeal, with its stress on individuality, creativity, emancipation, the pervasiveness of ideology and so on, and it seems a long way from the deterministic categories of some varieties of Marxist thinking. But it would be a mistake to confuse humanistic Marxism with humanistic psychology, and Gibson and others have argued that too much can be made of the individualism of critical theory and its conception of the relative autonomy of culture: in fact, the critical theorists remain 'wedded to the original theory' and operated over-whelmingly at the structural level of analysis. (Aronowitz and Giroux, 1986, p.122; Gibson, 1986, p.15).

This being the case, it is evidently a risky undertaking to select particular themes or ideas from critical social theory and put them into the service of humanistic psychology, neglecting others of possibly equal significance. For example, critical theory may be of more importance for adult education as a theory of knowledge than as an inspiration for perspective transformation or critical thinking. According to this view, all forms of human understanding are socially constructed in the course of the development of relations of production. Moreover, since critical theory challenges the whole idea of the separation of theory and practice in human concerns, the entire notion of 'theory application' is fundamentally undermined: there is no possibility of an ideologically indifferent theory or practice. It follows that there would not be an ideologically disinterested role for adult educators in facilitating critical thinking amongst adult learners. The idea of criticism itself could not be entirely detached from the ideological context of practice any more than concepts such as personal growth or self-actualization. Yet this is the view which would be entailed in adopting the perspective of critical theory.

A more authentic influence of critical theory may be detected in fairly eclectic notions such as Freire's 'conscientization', or that of the critical pedagogy associated with it. The fact is that critical theory denies precisely the kind of 'instrumental rationality' or pragmatic and process-orientated metholodogy which often characterizes North American thinking about adult education, presenting itself as a 'natural science' of human learning. Critical thinking, perspective transformation, andragogy, can all be put to universal purposes, whether these be the reinvigoration of democracy, the struggles of oppressed groups, or the learning needs of managers of international corporations. This is because they lack any kind of social structural reference and are, apparently, of no ideological significance.

Freire's ideas, and those of critical pedagogy generally (Freire, 1985; Freire and Shor, 1987; Livingstone, 1987) are not claimed to originate in critical social theory, and Freire's own analysis could hardly be described as Marxist. And yet there is here a concept of relatively specific struggle, conflict and oppression which does have some structural reference to social relations of production, and there are other North American educationists who are consciously working within, or revising, a critical theory paradigm (Apple, 1982, Giroux, 1981).

So it is to these kinds of authors that adult educationists should turn in order to gain an understanding of the significance of critical theory for their practice. Characteristically, perhaps, adult education theory focusses much more upon issues of developing professional roles, and upon the instrumental rationality inherent in this particular task. It is difficult, therefore, to locate critical thinking in any tradition of radical schooling or critical pedagogy. In selecting the more humanistic and individualistic aspects of critical theory - those which can be put to instrumental use in adult learning terms - the perspective transformation theorists have neglected its ideological critique of knowledge itself. In focussing upon the emancipatory possibilities of Habermas' theory it is possible to reflect the ideological and structural analysis in which, according to him, all our ideas about emancipation are embedded, namely, the 'descriptive model of advanced capitalism':

> Genuine participation of citizens in the processes of political will-formation (politischen Willensbildungsprozessen), that is, substantive democracy, would bring to consciousness the contradiction between administratively socialized production and the continued private appropriation and use of surplus value.
>
> (Habermas, 1983, p.261)

But is critical thinking really connected with 'substantive democracy' in adult education theory? Almost certainly not, for the vision of the critical theorists was of a socialist rather than a liberal democracy. For this reason, the derivation of principles of professional practice such as perspective transformation or critical thinking, from critical social theory should be treated with caution. In the haste to create a distinctive body of adult education knowledge we should beware the temptation to take ideas from sources which are too radical to assimilate to professional practice without distortion. In advocating critical thinking and emancipation as objects of professional attention we should distinguish between emancipating individuals and changing society, lest we promise more than we can deliver.

REFERENCES

Apple, M.W. (ed.) Cultural and Economic Reproduction in Education. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1982.

Aronowitz, S. and Giroux, H. Education under Siege. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1986.

Brookfield, S.D. Developing Critical Thinkers. Milton Keynes: Open University Press, 1987.

Connerton, P. (ed.) Critical Sociology. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books, 1976.

Freire, P.	The Politics of Education. London: Macmillan, 1985.
Freire, P. and Shor, J.	A Pedagogy for Liberation. London: Macmillan, 1987.
Gibson, R.	Critical Theory and Education. London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1986.
Giroux, H.A.	Ideology, Culture and the Process of Schooling London: Falmer Press, 1981.
Habermas, J.	"A Descriptive Model of Advanced Capitalism." In T. Bottomore and P. Goode (eds.). Readings in Marxist Sociology. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1983.
Held, D.	Introduction to Critical Theory: Horkheimer to Habermas. London: Hutchinson, 1980.
Livingstone, D.W. (ed.)	Critical Pedagogy and Cultural Power. London: Macmillan, 1987.
Marsick, V.J. (ed.)	Learning in the Workplace. London: Groom Helm, 1987.
Mezirow, J.	"A Critical Theory of Adult Learning and Education." Adult Education, 1981, 32 (1), 3 - 24.

LEARNING AND INVOLVEMENT IN THE RESEARCH DISCERNMENT PROCESS BY COMMUNITY MEMBERS

Michael J. Havercamp
Assistant Professor
College of Agriculture
The University of Nevada Reno
Reno, Nevada

Abstract

This paper addresses two important questions related to conducting participatory research. First, how can community members increase their decision-making control over the design and implementation of community-based research projects? Secondly, what are the implications of participant involvement on the learning experienced by the participants?

Introduction

From 1982 through 1986, I was associated with a group of Michigan farm families in the United States. Serving as a consultant, graduate student, facilitator-researcher and as a friend, I learned that a research process can serve as a learning and planning process for helping a group of people organize themselves around their survival. I also learned how a group of people can increase their decision-making control over the design and implementation of a community-based research project.

In this paper, I provide a discussion of some of the implications of participant involvement on the learning experienced by a group of Michigan farm families. This discussion is followed by a description of the selected components for another research project, presently being initiated in the State of Nevada (Havercamp, 1988) and based on the Michigan project (Havercamp, 1985), which allows for the increased participation of community members over the design and implementation of community-based projects.

The following discussions are based on my observations while associated with the farm families, beginning in 1982, and subsequent telephone and letter communications with them and, also, as the principal investigator for a Nevada Agriculture Experiment Station project where this Nevada project is being initiated.

Implications of Participant Involvement on the Learning Experienced by the Participants

As a result of farm-families' involvement in the Michigan project, specific strategies and actions have been enacted which are expected to help them survive in agriculture, keep control of their land, homes, machinery, and opportunities to raise food. By implementing these actions, they hope to create a sense of community self reliance and reduce their dependence on "forces" (e.g. international grain elevators) whose decision-making control is external to the local community.

What are these actions? They have included forming a non-profit educational/community organization. Through this organization, farm families have secured planning and organizing grants, mainly from religious institutions. They have also successfully field-tested raising corn without the use of synthetic chemicals. Through this experiment and lessons learned from other farm producers in the local community, farms are reducing their high-level need for synthetic chemicals and, subsequently, their dependece on grain elevators.

Participants are learning skills in organizing and managing a marketing cooperative they established which sells beef to consumers' cooperatives. Concerned with the plight of low-income families, the farmers' marketing cooperative helped to establish a consumer's cooperative in a large urban city with low-income residents. Problem solving and decision making regarding this marketing cooperative is controlled by the farm families while decision-making in the consumer's organization is controlled by low-income urban residents.

Through these and other experiences, farm families have developed knowledge and skills in group and organizational problem solving and decision-making. These have included consensus decision-making, team work, planning, and evaluation. Besides coming to better understand one another, the local community, and farm-families' issues, farm families have formed an attitude about the pace of planning and change, learning that planned change will be slow if it is to involve other people.

Selected Components of the Nevada Research Project

The central goal of this Nevada project is to develop four "action groups" composed of agricultural producers. These producers will facilitate the design of alternative marketing programs, attempting to increase their decision-making control over their agricultural resources.

Agriculture producers will be involved in forming and making research-design decisions; however, to begin to facilitate this research process, the following questions were developed to guide my initial involvement, prior to producer involvement. These questions attempt to clarify my expectations and biases as well as to serve as a meaningful developmental framework for carrying out a participatory research study.

1. Who are/should be the agricultural producers involved in each action group? How do their present decision-making arrangements and practices for raising and marketing beef cattle and hay relate to agricultural profitability?

2. What alternative arrangements and practices might have a potential for increasing agricultural profitability and on increasing producers' decision-making control over agricultural resources?

3. What educational and community development policies might act as guideposts when extension education personnel are

engaged in designing and implementing outreach education programs for expanding producers' perceived profitability choices for raising and marketing beef cattle and hay?

The following subsidiary tasks were developed to guide the research toward answering the major research questions:

1. To identify and describe the trends relative to the economic character of agriculture for the four case-study communities.
2. To identify and describe the inter-organizational units and arrangements (levels of dependency) through which a selected population of producers raise and market beef cattle and hay, representing a set of economic activities in which they engage to contribute to their livelihood.
3. To identify and describe the producers' decision-making process and the plans and practices they adopted to raise beef cattle and hay.
4. To identify and describe alternative producer decision-making plans and practices--based on cooperation--which expand producers' perceived profitability choices for raising and marketing beef cattle and hay.
5. To identify and describe the educational and community-development policies which foster cooperation among producers and extension-personnel in their attempts to implement alternative producer decision-making plans and practices.

The research project will employ multi-methods involving three phases. The initial phase for obtaining data relevant to the above research questions centers on assembling information from public documents. The second phase involves obtaining agricultural producers' perceptions about arrangements and practices for raising and marketing beef cattle and hay in four Nevada communities. The third phase involves the group of selected producers in innovative problem-solving and decision-making arrangements as a means of expanding perceived choices for raising and marketing cattle and hay.

What is the Conceptual Framework upon which this Project is Founded?

The level and type of producer decision-making control found to be operating in the four different study communities will be determined based on an analytic framework employed by Havercamp (1988). This framework will determine if agricultural decision-making practices are controlled at the producer (Level IV), Nevada Cooperative Extension Administrative Area level (Level III), State level (Level II), or National level (Level I). See Figure 1.

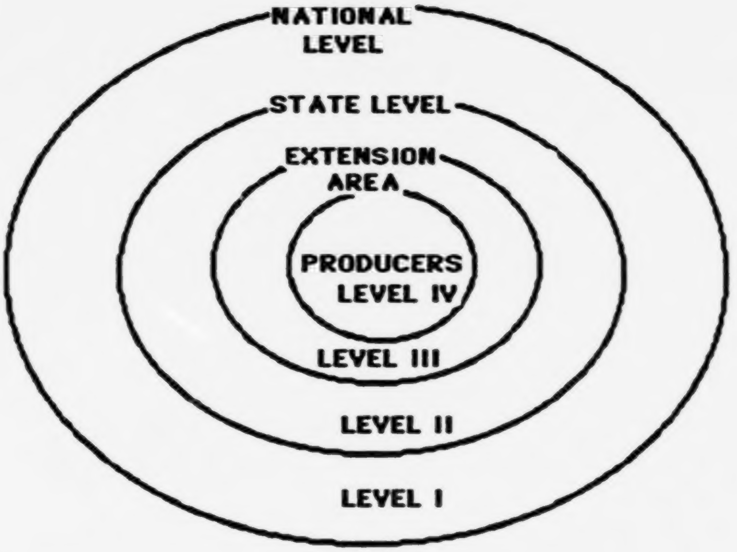


Figure 1. Conceptual model for examining decision-making levels

Decision-making levels will be determined by analyzing the nature and character of producer decision-making dominance on certain groups and organizations when acquiring specific resources and when performing specific tasks. These exchange arrangements will include some of the following groups: family members, neighbors, Cooperative Extension, government, implement dealerships, grain elevators, lending institutions, livestock yards, fuel distributors, publications, and insurance brokers. A selection of the resources and tasks to be studied will include: acquiring land, human help, fuel, equipment, information, money and loans, insurance, animal care, seed/feed supplements, acquiring beef cattle and hay, marketing/selling products, and the payment of land taxes.

How will the Agricultural Producers be Involved in the Research Decision-Making Process?

This research effort shall be systematic and participatory, allowing for the direct participation of the research users (agricultural producers) in the research design decision-making process. This participation shall occur, particularly, in phases II and III of this study. However, Phase I is an important introductory stage to help the principal investigator come to understand a particular case-study community. Through a study of public documents, the principal investigator develops an initial knowledge of the economic character of a community. With this knowledge, interviews with individual producers can begin (Phase II). During this process stage, specific problem-solving questions will be identified by the producers; and in the educational/problem-solving stage (Phase III), producers will be involved in analyzing the data and implementing strategies. It's important to note that the producers will view this research-design process as an opportunity to increase their agricultural profitability choices and not as a research study.

Historically, research designs have been dominated by an emphasis on "outcomes." While critically important, this new knowledge too often has not involved the users of the knowledge in the research decision-making, data gathering and analyses processes. This particular lack of user participation has concerned many researchers in social sciences, particularly in the fields of applied-anthropology, sociology, Extension and adult education (Hall,1981; Lather, 1987; Patton, 1986; Scheinfeld, 1987).

As a participatory-oriented research project, this design allows for the participants (agricultural producers) to come to better understand and change their situations as a result of the research experiment (Lather, 1985). The design is self-directed, providing the participants with opportunities to establish developmental strategies which will be based on their felt needs (specific to profitability).

This participatory-research design will be guided by four problem-solving "steps:" (a) discovery of the problem, (b) inventing a solution, (c) implementing the solution, and (d) generalizing to other settings what one has learned (Argyris, 1976). Creating a problem-solving setting, among producers, which is characterized by open inquiry and mutual trust (Argyris and Schon,1974) is essential to these decision-making criteria being accomplished in a cooperative manner.

What is the Research Methodology?

As a triangulation study (Butler, 1984), at least four forms of data collection will be used: demographic-statistical analyses to describe selected agricultural economic variables for the case-study communities; and informal interviews, participant observation, and life histories for answering the decision-making task questions (Jacob, 1987). Because the study is participant oriented, the specific problem-solving questions can't be determined at this stage of the research design, but will be formulated by the participants themselves. But, based on the experience of a similar study (Havercamp, 1985), specific problem-solving questions may pertain to gathering information concerning the following decision-making areas:

- Groups and organizations producers are dependent upon when acquiring, raising, and selling products.
- Ways producers would like to change relationships with these groups.
- General plans or ideas producers follow to acquire, raise, and market products.
- Producers able to follow their plans.
- How producers' plans compare with Nevada Cooperative Extension plans with respect to kinds/amounts of land to use, the number/kind of products to raise; kinds and amounts of technology used to raise food; kinds of materials (e.g. synthetic chemicals); and, kinds/amounts of human help.
- The anticipated costs and profits of producers' plans.

How will the Validity of the Data be Determined?

Validity of the data used to answer research questions and tasks will be evaluated for their "credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability" (Guba and Lincoln, 1981). As such, the research inquiry allows participants the opportunities to be involved in the construction and validation of knowledge generated (Fay,1975).

For example, data received from interview discussions will be summarized using handouts. These handouts will be constructed in a concept mapping form summarizing the level and kind of dependencies producers have with groups and organizations at Levels I, II, III, and IV (see Havercamp, 1985, p. 76).

REFERENCES

Argyris, C. & Schon, D. (1974). Theory in practice. San Francisco: Jossey- Bass.

Argyris, C. (1976). Theories of action that inhibit individual learning. American Psychologist 31, 638-54.

Butler, D. F. (1984). Enthnographic/qualitative research: Theoretical perspectives and methodological strategies. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA., November 14-16, 1984.

Fay, B. (1975). Social theory and political practice. London: George Allen and Unwin Ltd.

Guba, E. & Lincoln, Y. (1981). Effective evaluation. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hall, B. (1981). Participatory reseach, popular knowledge and power: A personal reflection. Convergence, 14 (3), 6-19.

Havercamp, M. (1985). An educational and community-development policy study on decision-making control over agricultural practice by farm families. Dissertation Abstracts International. (University Microfilms).

Havercamp, M. (1988). A study to expand decision-making choices for raising and marketing beef cattle and hay. (A proposal submitted to the the Nevada Agriculture Experiment Station). Reno, Nevada: College of Agriculture.

Jacob, E. (1987). Qualitative research traditions: A review. Review of Educational Research 57, (1): 1-50.

Lather, P. (1985). "Empowering Research Methodologies." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association. Chicago, March 31 - April 4, 1985.

Patton, M. (1986). Utilization-focused evaluation (Second Edition). Beverly Hills, CA.: Sage.

Scheinfeld, D. (1987). A Collaborative approach to research utilization. Practicing Anthropology, 9 (1): 4-5.

Educating For War and Peace: A Women's Club Responds to Two World Wars

Jane M. Hugo
Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York

Abstract: This paper describes the activities of an informal women's study club, the Coterie, during the First and Second World War periods (1913-1920; 1938-1948). It considers the relationship of social events like war and peace, women's interests, and women's view of their role in American society to the continuing education created by the women in their study club.

Introduction

Hartley C. Gratten (1955) noted that people are more interested in adult education in times of "acute social disturbance," especially the time surrounding war. The 1919 Report by the Adult Education Committee of the British Ministry of Reconstruction, the GI Bill, and the 1947 American report, Higher Education for Democracy, by the President's Commission on Higher Education testify to the reality of such a resurgence of interest in lifelong adult education as a national need after a war. Adult education historians have studied many broad programs or programmatic areas, institutions, and more recently, some ideological conflicts related to the establishment of a national adult education movement and a unified adult education profession (See for example, Cotton, 1961; Stubblefield, 1974 , 1976; and Rockhill, 1984). Notably less research has been done on autonomous learning groups and the history of their work in adult education.

This paper is part of a larger project in which I look at adult education in a study club, the Coterie (1885-present), operating at the community level, without formal affiliation with an educational institution, and serving women. (Hugo, 1987) What did the "golden years of adult education," the World War years, mean to the women in the club? What were the influences and interests used by the women to shape the work of the study club in time of war and the resulting peace? Following the description of the club's efforts during both wars, the paper concludes with a discussion of how an understanding of this club suggests some new directions for understanding adult education in the United States.

Background

Women's Study Clubs in America

Women's study clubs began to flourish in small towns and large cities in the United States in the 1880s and 1890s. Comprised mainly of middle-class black or white women, women's study clubs brought women together for study as well as for social interaction at a time when women's "place" was primarily in the home or the church, but not in the university or the working world. Typically, members met every two weeks, between September and June, in one another's homes. Their programs consisted of either reading on a topic or a paper presentation prepared by one or more of the members themselves according to a theme that the club selected for the year. Membership dues were minimal. Materials for study were garnered from member's access to libraries, personal contacts with people working in a variety of educational and social institutions, and from the life experiences of the members, their families and friends. In general, membership was by invitation. Most clubs had twenty-five to thirty-five members unless they were located in a larger metropolitan area where clubs might own their own building and have a membership of several hundred women. Some clubs dedicated themselves to cultural pursuits in a liberal arts tradition while other clubs followed a service theme through which they were active in their community. Many study clubs, though not all, formed a national network through the General Federation of Women's Clubs (1890) or some similar state or regional federation.

Women's study clubs and the federated club networks were active in 19th and 20th century concerns spoken of in terms of the "private sphere" of the home and culture, and the "public sphere" of business, government, science, and education. Many middle-class clubwomen saw themselves as "social housekeepers" (Woloch, 1984). Consequently, without necessarily abandoning their cultural interests, they studied and often took action on Progressive era issues like child labor, woman's suffrage, and prison reform. Other women's reform groups connected with the various clubwomen's federations in hopes of rallying women to aid their causes at local as well as national levels.

In the years just prior to the First World War, there was a confluence of the reform, suffrage, and peace movements and a strong sense among women that their role in the public sphere was expanding. Proponents of the woman suffrage movement and leaders in the Progressive reform movement, two movements with which many women's clubs aligned themselves, had each modified their positions and joined forces. The General Federation of Women's Clubs endorsement of the Suffrage Amendment in 1914 ratified this new alliance (Blair, 1980). An international peace movement lead by women like Jane Addams and Florence Kelly was intertwined with the American suffrage movement. The Woman's Party (1915), an offshoot of the National American Women's Suffrage Association (NAWSA), made international peace a major theme in women's politics. Women were urged to prepare to use the vote to overcome "the male martial instinct." The Woman's Peace Party claimed to represent the "mother half of humanity" (Woloch, 1984).

The Coterie

The Coterie began in 1885 in the small but prosperous town of Fayetteville, New York. Its membership, procedures, style of studying, and objectives were typical of many women's clubs. "Mutual improvement and a united effort towards a higher social and intellectual life" were the club's goals. Its motto was, "Literature and the elegant arts must grow up side by side with the coarser plants of daily necessity" (Coterie Minutes, April 28, 1885, hereafter noted as CM followed by the date).

The Coterie members were middle-class women with middle-class privileges and problems. The majority of the women in the Coterie were not college educated by 1911. They were middle-aged to older married women for the most part, and in all likelihood, their afternoon meetings precluded the participation of working women. They were women who had access to an emerging mass culture available through magazines and later, in the 20s and 30s, radio and movies. They were women for whom modern ingenuity was changing the nature and value of their household work without a concomitant change in the value of their social roles as wife or mother. Finally, they were women who were actively interested in their community and in learning. Writing in the annual report for 1911, the secretary said, "...we will say that we have tried to do our best. The question for each of us to settle is not what we would do if we had means, time, influence, and educational advantages, the question is what we shall do with the things we have." (CM, June 9, 1911).

Cultural subjects like art, music, history, geography, and literature were the club's principal concern up until the early 1900s. Starting in 1905, the Coterie turned its attention to Progressive reform, and in 1911, it joined the New York State Federation of Women's Clubs thereby establishing links with other clubs through conferences and correspondence. From this point on, the Coterie's study is influenced by what happens with the alliances among the club movement, suffrage movement, the reform movement, and the peace movement .

1912-1920: The World War I Period

Inspiration To Do Worthwhile Things

In the years preceding the European declaration of war (1914), the Coterie gave half of its time to cultural topics and the other half to reform issues. After attending a 1913 convention of federated clubs in western New York, the Coterie's two delegates brought back the "...enthusiasm and inspiration to do worthwhile things..." and the understanding that the Federation stood for "...conservation in its broadest sense, for civic righteousness, social justice, and practical reform" (CM, Dec. 2, 1913). The programs for 1912-1914 focused on Canada and Present Day Problems. In addition to Canadian history, geography, and culture, the members considered reform topics such as the history of probation in Syracuse, N.Y., municipal recreation programs, state health laws, new legislation on industrial safety, the work of women police, theater as a form of social uplift and a source of citizenship training, vocational guidance for school children, white slave traffic (i.e., prostitution), woman's suffrage, and the efforts of the Little Mother's League to save infants' lives. The club was supported in their education on reform through their contact with the Consumer's League, the Political Equality Club of Syracuse, and the State Federation of Women's Clubs. As a group, the club acted on what they learned when they bought a park bench as part of a village beautification project or when they wrote a letter opposing the striped uniforms prisoners were forced to wear. The 1912-1914 minutes do not contain any mention of international events foreshadowing the war in Europe. However, from the 1914-1915 season through 1919, the peace movement, war, and the battle for the vote competed for the Coterie members' attention in the present-day-problems section of their meeting.

Competing Struggles

The outbreak of war in Europe sparked club interest in those events. It also galvanized into action those women in the suffrage/reform movement who saw the need to work for peace through pacifism. Counterpoint themes of war and peace (linked with suffrage) surface in the clubs minutes for 1914-1915 and 1915-1916. For example, at the Nov. 3, 1914 meeting, the Coterie discussed the causes of the war "reviewed from both the German & allies, opinions." At that same meeting, the club's delegate to the State Federation of Women's Clubs read a letter "desiring cooperation in peace matters." During this period, the Coterie women gave reports on and discussed topics like the triple alliance and entente, the role of smaller nations in the war, air machines in war, the wireless, trench warfare, munitions of war, medical aid for war victims, and the Kaiser. In contrast, they also discussed prominent writers on world peace like Jane Addams, and at the request of Jane Addams, the club sent a peace telegram to President Wilson.

As supporters of the suffrage and peace movements, the Coterie women found themselves more and more at odds with the rising patriotism connected with America's support for the war. In addition, as a strategy to get the vote, the NAWSA began to align itself with war supporters, thus putting it in opposition with the women in the peace movement (Woloch, 1984). This shift is evident in the Coterie's treatment of the war and suffrage topics. In 1915, the club discussed the failure of the suffrage amendment to pass in New York State, but some members pointed out that the failure had generated financial support for the cause as well as drawn support from workers. The following year when the Coterie discussed "Women in War," women's war efforts were linked with getting the vote, "...describing the unselfish and intelligent activities of woman during the war and prophesying that this demonstration of her splendid efficiency will end the war for the ballot" (CM, Feb.22, 1916).

On April 4, 1916, the Coterie voted 12 to 3 for war preparedness, two weeks after receiving "a call to endorse the motion of the women's section of the New York State Committee on the Movement for Preparedness." (CM, March 21, 1916) Addressing the contrasting stances taken by the study club, the secretary wrote, "...through preparedness and a firm stand to uphold righteousness among nations - at whatever cost - lasting Peace shall be secured. So we hope the two records may prove to be parts of one harmony." (CM, June 13, 1916) The same minutes reveal a sense of unity "in faith and service" with the "suffering womanhord of Europe" and a plea for courage "for whatever high demands the fateful hours may bring."

Service In Time Of War

The Coterie's war education intensified as soon as the United States entered the war in April, 1917. The networks of women's clubs set up to fight for the vote became the same networks that state and federal agencies used to mobilize women for war work (Flick, 1935). Within two weeks of the U.S. entry in the war, the Coterie members were organizing their war effort and informing each other of opportunities for service in the community. The New York State Federation of Women's Clubs, like the General Federation of Women's Clubs, had endorsed war preparedness and contacted clubs to request "all women to register for service in time of war" (CM, April 17, 1917). These activities included ambulance and hospital work, canning vegetables, victory gardens, contributions to French relief work, and sewing.

Although the Coterie continued to study Mexico as well as war related topics from 1917 until the end of the war in 1918, it was not business as usual. At one point, the club voted on the motion to discontinue for the duration of the war. The motion failed, but the group reduced the number of meetings for the year in order to accommodate members' volunteer work. Educating for war entailed keeping abreast of war needs and women's involvement. The club studied the work of hospitals and medical procedures used in France, the Red Cross, the soldier's life, the work of the women's land army, the success of conservation methods for the war effort, and women's war accomplishments in relief work and improved community life. At the height of American middle-class women's work to reduce food consumption through meatless and wheatless days and to produce canned foods for distribution at home and abroad, the Coterie women quoted a woman writer who said, "Everything they said woman wasn't and couldn't and didn't, she now is, and can, and does" (CM, April 30, 1918).

Post-War Directions

Educating themselves for the peace involved consideration of issues important to post-war America , and this in turn related to the Coterie helping its members participate in the reconstruction as full, voting citizens. As predicted, women's involvement in the war helped them win the vote, in New York State in 1917, in Congress in 1919, and nationally in 1920. Six civics clubs "...to educate women of all classes in their duties since they have acquired the right to vote..." had been formed in Syracuse, N.Y. (CM, Jan. 22, 1919). It is not surprising to find the Coterie noting the following: "In view of the progress of women's citizenship it seemed advisable to devote extended time to the study of preparedness" (CM, Feb. 19, 1919). The Armistice in November of 1918 spurred the Coterie on to study a new set of present-day problems in addition to electing to begin a study of France. Post-war themes on reconstruction, education, industry, citizenship, and new points of international conflict like Russia and Palestine gradually replaced the progressive concerns that dominated the club's agenda just seven years before. The vote was won. The war was over. The Coterie women entered the post-war years proud of their contributions to the war effort and deeply interested in active citizenship.

1938-1948: The Second World War Period

The Backdrop

Like the Great War, the Second World War engulfed Europe years before it did the United States. Unlike that earlier war, however, women's organizational networks no longer linked women in the same way nor were women in the country united around any one cause as they had been around suffrage. The 1920s and 30s, with the economic strain of the depression and Roosevelt's New Deal programs, brought a retreat to traditional values. Ideal models of womanhood portrayed in popular films, fiction, or radio supported women's "domestic and nuturing role and contrasted sharply with the image of independence promoted during the 1920s" (Gluck, 1987). The Second World War necessitated a change in women's employment patterns for the duration, making it acceptable for married middle-class women - even those with children - to enter the workforce. At the same time, there was anxiety over women renouncing their domestic responsibilities, rejecting their families, neglecting their children, and fostering juvenile delinquency (Woloch, 1984).

The war years were not a time of "intellectual blackout" (Williams, 1943) for the Coterie women. The women sought greater understanding of the national and international scenes through a study of current events, foreign countries, and the world's growing interdependence. They fostered cultural continuity through their ongoing attention to the arts, literature, geography, and the like much as was done through adult education in Britain during the war (Williams, 1943). They also tried to understand their role as women in their times and the new world to be built after the war.

War Anticipated

In the years prior to the U.S.'s entry into the war, the Coterie women followed the events unfolding in Europe. They discussed conditions in German, Great Britain, Czechoslovakia, China, Japan, and Italy. In addition, two meetings were given over to "World Interdependence" as it applied to industry and culture. Starting in October of 1940, hostilities were such that the Coterie announcements included requests for help with the Red Cross knitting program and the Bundles for Britain campaign, urged attendance at the Defense Committee's Card Party, and included an invitation to send club representatives to the town's Red Cross safety program. By May 1941, one of the members urged the others to sign up "in some capacity" for the Volunteer Service Bureau.

Help Put the World In Order For Our Men To Come Home To

The club's response to the war quickened with the bombing of Pearl Harbor and the call for national mobilization. As middle-class women did during the First World War, this generation of Coterie women also volunteered in typically female areas of war service: medical work, civil defense, nutrition education, soldiers' entertainment and morale, community morale programs, foreign relief efforts, and community fund-raising activities. A woman representing the Office of Civilian Defense and in charge of mobilizing volunteers addressed the club in November, 1942. Paying warm tribute to the women's present defense work and looking forward to "future protection if the war should come nearer home...", she suggested that women might "have to enter regular employment as the need for women workers increased" (CM, Nov. 10, 1942).

The Coterie women educated themselves on topics that enlarged their understanding of the war in general, but more frequently they approached topics particularly from their vantage point as women, particularizing them to their role as women. For instance, they conducted a post-war symposium in January, 1943 in which they covered the State Department's list of "first requirements" including points like a long armistice, armed forces to maintain order, the training of administrators, military occupation of conquered countries, and care for human suffering. Women's experiences were not the focus in the symposium. The same is true of other discussions on agricultural economics or medical advances made during the war. However, at the end of this particular symposium, two members brought the post-war world home to the members.

> ...Mrs. Coughlin took up the subject of change resulting from war in every aspect of life - not the least of importance of which may be in the home and in the lives of women. And Mrs. Cross followed up the theme of the privilege as well as the challenge to us women - we who have more than half of the country's votes and must take much of the responsibility for the peace - must feed our own and others - must help educate both young and adults and generally help put the world in order for our men to come home to (CM, Jan. 26, 1943).

A tension and contradiction between women's roles as worker and homemaker showed in other programs in which the members studied women and the war. Early in the 1943-44 season, the Coterie put on a panel to discuss "Women's New Freedom." Different members spoke on the changes due to the war: the entry of 4,000,000 women into industry, educational institutions allowing flexible scheduling to meet women's needs, courses available in homemaking that "...attempt to inform women that homemakers are important even tho [sic.] they do not wear uniforms," and women in government. They noted that "problems of caring for children of working mothers; of proper clothing for women to wear to work; of physical health; the kind of work women can do; and many others have arisen to puzzle managers who have finally solved many of their problems by hiring women as personnel directors....Marion said justice and the humanities can be brought into politics and that women possess such qualities as persistence, tact, industry, etc" (CM, Oct. 26, 1943). The woman dean of the School of Home Economics at Syracuse University told them about the War Service College "which will prepare its students for useful war work. At this same talk, the speaker outlined what "girls hope to get out of college - financial independence, culture, and eventual marriage." Noting the trend away from women's colleges where "the earlier aim seemed to prove by its courses that women were the equal of men in intellectual capacity, " the speaker explained that the aim of home economics "is to produce a girl with an all-round development and a sound basis for home-making and an ability to be self-supporting," adding finally that "too many of the men found unfit for service in the present war came from 'tin can' homes..." (CM, Jan. 12, 1943). While the Coterie's war-time educational efforts celebrated women's accomplishments during the war, they also reflected society's expectations that women's proper place was in the home.

Gloomy Prospects and More Understanding

How did the Coterie prepare for peace? As early as 1943, the Coterie looked into the future and began preparing for peace. Allied successes in Europe bolstered the sense that there would soon be an end to the war, and many people began planning for the eventual end of hostilities along with the demobilization of the military forces and the military economy (Rupp, 1978). The club used many of its biweekly programs between 1945 and 1948 to explore the social needs at home (for example, racial prejudice, and farming and labor issues), to understand the forces and events shaping a world environment (for example, new problems in the Middle East, China, Russia, and India; U.S. involvement in international cartels; the aftermath of Hiroshima; and the refugee issue), to understand how the nations could work in nonexploitive, cooperative efforts (for instance, the role of the United Nations), and to examine scientific and technological advances that would change day-to-day life (for example, chemotherapy, streptomycin, synthetic rubber, nylon, fluorescent lighting, atomic energy, and plastics). With the need for women's mobilization over, the Coterie shifted its consideration of women's war efforts to a broader civic education and also began linking with civic organizations like the League of

Women voters and the Fayetteville Community Council or Health Council. Reflecting on the 1945-46 year's work, the club secretary wrote:

> In spite of the possible gloomy prospects of some of these problems presented to us through this year's programs by studying them and thereby understanding the situations more thoroughly, we all can feel better equipped to help with their solution, and to be more understanding and sympathetic toward those who are directly responsible for making this post-war world a better place in which to live (CM, May 28, 1946).

Conclusion

The adult education efforts of the Coterie suggest three directions for consideration by adult education historians. First, the high degree to which being women influenced how the Coterie learned, what they studied, and how they chose to translate that learning into action, suggests that gender (the social construction of sex roles and values) can play a decisive role in shaping adult education. In an effort to write a more comprehensive history of adult education, we need to consider not only class, racial, and age influences, but also gender influences in our interpretation of formal and informal adult education efforts.

Second, this history of the Coterie and the work of others studying women's history suggest the need to reconsider focusing on the aftermath of war as the period of rising adult education needs among women. Both wars served to energize women's need to learn, but both post-war periods tended to bring more conservative moods in terms of women's role in society while mobilizing adult education efforts to deal with the men returning from war and the change-over in the economy.

Third, the continuity of liberal arts topics throughout the history of the Coterie is curious in the face of the growing emphais by professional adult educators on vocational and civic education as key elements of lifelong learning. Adult education historians might explore men and women's interest in conserving liberal arts education in the United States.

References

Blair, K. (1980). The clubwoman as feminist: True womanhood redefined, 1868-1914. New York: Holmes & Meirer.

Coterie minutes and programs (1912-1920 and 1938-1948). These documents are on file at the Fayetteville Free Library, Fayetteville, N.Y.

Cotton, W. (1961). On behalf of adult education: A historical examination of the supporting literature. Boston: Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults.

Flick, A. (Ed.) (1935). History of the state of New York, (Vol. 7). Port Washington, N.Y.: Ira J. Friedman, Inc.

Gluck, S. (1987). Rosie the riveter revisted: Women, the war, and social change. Boston: Twayne Publishers.

Gratton, C.H. (1955). In quest of knowledge: A historical prospective on adult education. New York: Association Press.

Hugo, J. (1987). The elegant arts amid the coarser plants of daily necessity: A retrospective view of a women's study club 1885-1957. In Proceedings of the 28th Annual Adult Education Research Conference, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming: May 21-23, 1987, 109-113.

Rockhill, K. (1984). Between the wars: Liberalism and the eclipsing of conflict in the framing of adult education. In Proceedings of the 25th Annual Adult Education Research Conference, Raleigh, N.C.: April 5-7, 1984, 159-164.

Rupp, L. (1978). Mobilizing women for war: German and American propaganda 1935-45. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press.

Stubblefield, H. (1974). Adult civic education in the post-world war II period. Adult Education, 24(3), 227-237.

Stubblefield, H. (1976). Adult education for civic intelligence in the post-world war I period. Adult Education, 26(4), 253-269.

Williams, C. (1943). Adult education in wartime Britain. Adult Education Bulletin, 7(3), 67-70.

Woloch, N. (1984). Women and the American experience. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL COMMUNICATIONS INFRASTRUCTURE: A Case Study of Nigerian Adult Learners

Clifford O Ihejieto-Aharanwa
Northern Illinois University

Abstract: Communications infrastructure is presented as a causal model for political, economic and social development. Through the use of the media and public buildings, Nigerian adult learners would have access to information, education, knowledge, skilled labor and decision making process which in turn could lead to reducing illiteracy.

Nigeria, like other independent African nations, has for some time been dissatisfied with an educational system inherited from Great Britain. The obvious reason, among other things, for the dissatisfaction is that the inherited educational system left Nigeria dependent on foreign expertise, unskilled labour and, worse still, an illiterate society. According to 1980 UNESCO statistics on the illiteracy rate in Africa, Nigeria's rate stands at 70.1. In 1982, the Nigerian Federal Military Government vowed to eliminate mass illiteracy in no distant time. To date, these efforts have not been successful; instead, illiteracy is increasing in Nigeria. Part of this failure, as Omolewa (1984) pointed out, is a result of the "slow and half-hearted approach to the elimination of illiteracy by the government of Nigeria". The other part, more crucial than Omolewa's observation, is that Nigeria lacks the infrastructure to fight illiteracy, to move from an oral society to a written society, and to systematize educational activities.

This study advocates the establishment of a systematized educational facility called communications infrastructure for Nigerian adult learners. Infrastructure as Hawthorne (1978) stated is the source of limitations to technological development independent of either the technology or market influences as represented by: (1) resources - for developing human skills by education and training, for mobilizing finance, and including availability and control of materials and energy; (2) services - in the sense of physical and information transfer systems; and (3) environment - as imposed by the natural setting and social perceptions of the quality of life. In this study, infrastructure will be discussed within the contexts of the media and public buildings. The media include electronics - radio, television and video, and prints - books, newspapers and magazines; whereas, public buildings cover libraries, assembly halls, schools, colleges, and learning centers.

The establishment of communications infrastructure is presented as a causal model for political, economic and social development. The study posits that through the use of the media and public buildings Nigerian adult learners would have access to information, education, knowledge, skilled labour and decision making process which in turn could lead to reducing illiteracy, political and social participation and economic well-being (see Fig. 1).

Methodology

A case study research approach was used in the study. Personal interviews were used where necessary, while other articles used showed limited but significant perspectives to the topic. Of the nine Nigerian citizens interviewed, eight were graduate students enrolled at Northern

Illinois University in different academic disciplines. The other one was a professor at Northern Illinois University and had served in the Federal Ministry of Education in Nigeria. The articles used were from credible journals procured from different countries. Interestingly, both the interviews and literature reviewed point to one thing - that Nigeria's educational needs at the adult level can be addressed if an infrastructure can be suggested. The research question addressed in the study was: How would the establishment of communications infrastructure help reduce illiteracy among Nigerian adults and enhance political, economic, and social development?

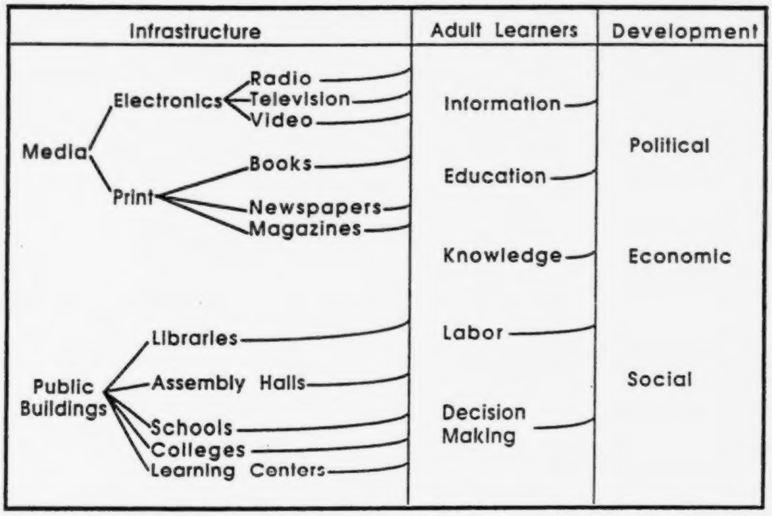

Infrastructure
Adult Learners
Development
Media
Electronics
Radio
Television
Video
Print
Books
Newspapers
Magazines
Public Buildings
Libraries
Assembly Halls
Schools
Colleges
Learning Centers
Information
Education
Knowledge
Labor
Decision Making
Political
Economic
Social

Fig. 1 Causal Model

The Media

Pool (1966) asked, "How much and in what ways can investment in communication contribute to the process of development?". In an answer to the question, he pointed out that "mass media lead to a new knowledge of the world, they inspire cravings for desirable things faster than such things can be produced in a developing country, and they create new statuses which provide arenas for nationalists." Another scholar Daniel Lerner (1957) observed that people who live together in a common polity develop patterned ways of distributing information, as of distributing other commodities. These patterns of information flow he added, interact at many points with patterns of power, wealth, status, and other values to form a system, ie. institutional variation in one is accompanied by regular and determinate variations in the others. Lerner noticed two general features that appear to be common to all societies:

(1) the direction of change is always from an oral to media system (no known case exhibits change in the reverse direction), and
(2) the degree of change in communication behavior appears to correlate significantly with other social systems.

He postulated that "a communication system is both index and agent of change in a total system." (p. 267)

Whiting (1976) in his article "How does communication interface with change?" said, "An obvious way in which a message can make a causal contribution to changing something is when it answers a crucial question". To explain his claim, he used this analogy:

> Suppose farmers in a valley need water to increase their production. The message, "If you dig down more than ten meters in this kind of rock formation, you will find water," may be all they need to know. Communications by itself will never water the valley, of course. There must be the tools, energy, and access to land in the water supply area. But if information is what was lacking, communication will be the key causal element in change (p. 109).

The advent of radio, television and later video chronicled the quest for mass literacy, education for business and employment, political participation, economic advancement, power, decision making, pursuit of values, and community development. Ajayi-Dopemu (1985) highlighted the achievement of one medium television in Nigeria between the periods 1971-1984:

> ... the role of television in national issues is immense. In fact, without television, most programs of the different government administrations that Nigeria has had would have been impossible. Nigerian television stations have played laudable roles in creating awareness, promoting freshness and variety. The Nigerian Television Authority disseminates information vital to the developmental cohesion of the country, and the rapid development and change of Nigeria as a nation. Some of the government programs and projects that would have been impossible to implement without the cooperation of the NTA include:
>
> 1) the currency change of 1971;
> 2) the change to right-hand road traffic 1973;
> 3) the metrication of 1973;
> 4) the operation 'Feed the Nation' of 1976;
> 5) the 'Green Revolution' program of 1980;
> 6) the elections of 1979 and 1983;
> 7) the currency change of April 1984.

Some educators in Nigeria use the television industry in two relatively distinct ways: for educational television (ETV) and instructional television (ITV). The Educational Television is like the PBS in the United States. It telecasts documentary and discussion programs, schools debates and quizzes at regular viewing times and network. The Instructional Television programs are screened on local cable networks. But unlike educational television, instructional television carries live or recorded classroom instructions. Because of the emphasis being placed on learning at home, the Federal Ministry of Education's National Educational Television Centre (NETC) has apportioned 14 hours a week of educational programs. In addition to such 'open circuit' instructional television, there is close-circuit television, which involves the origination, distribution and display of a television presentation to specifically identified and controlled reception points.

For community projects in rural areas, radio and television educate farmers - films on agricultural problems, produced and supplied by the National Accelerated Foods Production Project, are screened and relayed to the viewing centers to help inform the farmers on various agricultural matters - and to boost their morale. Through radio and television, the Federal and various state governments are helping the campaign for basic literacy skills - known as the 'university of the air'.

The video cassette has also had an impact on Nigeria. Boyd and Straubhaar (1985) in their article "Developmental Impact of the Home Video

Cassette Recorder on Third World countries" noted that the Nigerian VCR boom was such that despite its acquisition first by the elites, the ownership of the machines soon spread to the middle class and to lower economic classes seeking a means of earning a living from pirated cassettes. According to Olusola (1983) "small local video production operations have emerged, permitting local artists to package material for the Nigerian home video market."

While radio, television and video continued to foster, books, newspapers and magazines have made limited progress in combating illiteracy even though there are more books, newspapers and magazines now than before. The reason for the limited progress in the print media in Nigeria is simply that the majority of the Nigerian adults are illiterate; most of them cannot read in English whereas some can read only in their native language. Beyond the reading problem in Nigeria is the problem of information transfer, storage and retrieval. There are insufficient textbooks for the number of people that need them. Publishing in Nigeria is firmly in the hands of Western Publishers. Where the Nigerians publish at all, greater prestige is attached to journals abroad than to local journals even though many of the journals are of a high standard (Woodhouse, 1985).

Illiteracy might have been encouraged owing to the limited progress of the print media. But as Woodhouse observed, there are two independent influences that have seriously retarded the development of knowledge as a commodity for exchange on the open market in Nigeria: (a) the ethos of secrecy and (b) the ethos of colonial society. In the ethos of secrecy:

> Specialized knowledge ... was to be safeguarded by small elite who maintained access to it; it was not to be transmitted on any large scale to the general populace, since to do so would deprive the elite of status which knowledge conferred upon them. Specialized knowledge guilds, and entry were limited to those of high social rank, the same blood relationships, the male sex, and in some cases exceptional ability (Blackemore & Cooksey, 1980, p.19).

The lack of access to knowledge is reinforced with the belief that knowledge is not only equated with power but also to be gained by means of private and non-verifiable methods. Among the Sukor of Northern Nigeria, for example, the secrets of iron-blasting were maintained within the select circle of a patriarchial guild (Woodhouse, 1985). Those initiated into the guild believed their knowledge was divinely inspired and not be revealed to those outside the guild,since outsiders could not be trusted to exercise the power and responsibility which such knowledge conferred upon them. By this method, open methods of inquiry, allowing any individual to question the origins of knowledge, regardless of his or her status were precluded. In order to overcome the authoritarianism of tradition society, a more flexible approach - one based on the ideal of open and undistorted communication - must be adopted. Such an approach requires the spread of the scientific method in modern Nigerian society as a whole (Nduka, 1964).

In the ethos of colonial society, "knowledge was regarded as the prerogative of an alien elite, and it was transmitted to the general populace by means of school systems that required the memorization of alien texts to be regurgitated on demand at the time of examination. In other words, learning took place only to get the diploma to assume an elite position and not for the purpose of adding to the body of knowledge that exists". (Woodhouse, 1985) Closely related to the ethos of colonial society is "the tendency in the national policy of education to maintain the social structure and thus use education as a medium of domination instead of development." (Enaohwo, 1984) In the Nigerian context, this attitude is exemplified by the domination of the rest of the society by the thoughts and policies of the educated elite (Enaohwo, 1984). If Nigeria were to have systematized educational activities, the troubles of secrecy would have been minimized given that people have access to the public buildings.

Public Buildings

As Brown and Norberg (1965) noted, the new educational media including television and radio have not come to replace the book or other printed materials, after all they are "not alternatives, not competitive, and the use of one does not necessarily diminish or preclude use of the other." The library is a germane place and the archive for information storage and retrieval - for students be they adult learners or teenagers. Without the library, information becomes extinct and perishes. Part of the educational problem that Nigeria has is lack of a well-established and equipped library system. As an oral society, the greater portion of the wisdom landmarks left by the founding fathers are lost in the event of their passing to other side of the universe. Oral information at best is aesthetic, customary and good for natives who have no need for the European tradition. But at worst, oral information is short-lived and susceptible to gross distortion. The traditional oral information system left Nigeria with two major academic problems: (1) not having the means to preserve information and (2) not establishing a local library education system. Adimorah (1983) observed that the slow rate of public library development and its impact on society can be attributed to various factors:

> the high rate of illiteracy which leads to a low user rate; lack of adequate financing; unavailability of trained personnel; poor integration of public library services in educational planning; social and cultural factors; lack of library cooperation and net-working; political factors; the undefined status of the public librarian; poor communication facilities; geographical factors; lack of user-oriented selection and acquisition of resources. (p.171)

However, industralization, technological transfer and advancement, and mechanization of agriculture have led to the establishment of research institutes by the Federal Ministry of Education (Nzotta, 1985). As a result, the need for more libraries, staff and equipment are top-most in the Nigerian educational society.

Apart from the research oriented need for libraries, the use of libraries in adult learning are very high in the rural areas. The Imo State Library Board, Owerri, Imo State, has through its research division started oral documentation of the history of Imo State with a view of introducing oral librarianship (Adimorah, 1983). In other parts of the country, rural people use the libraries for health education, farm information, recreation and leisure, and cultural learning.

In terms of trained staff, degree programs are available in some universities, but not enough for the number of libraries available. The Department of Library and Information Science, College of Technology Owerri, is the only library school in Nigeria that is devoted solely to the training of middle-level manpower for libraries and allied institutions. It is also the only library school established outside the aegis of a university (Adimorah, 1983). Part of the problem of not having enough trained staff is lack of Ph.D. or Ed.D. lecturers in library

Science. This causes low enrollment. The University of Ibadan offers master's and doctorate degrees in the area. The Universities of Zaria and Dano offer bachelor's and master's also in Library Science, but Nigeria needs more librarians and equipment especially now that adult education has become a community development scheme.

The case for the establishment of more libraries in Nigeria holds true too for assembly halls and learning centers for the local people. Assembly halls are like the Western Civic centers. Non-formal adult education classes can best be conducted in such buildings. According to the 1979 Directory of Adult Education Centers in Africa, there are only 19 learning centers in Nigeria, a country whose illiteracy rate stands at 70.1.

Given that the educational communications infrastructure suggested in this study is implemented in Nigeria, the benefits are such that: (1) Millions of Nigerian adult learners would have access to learning; this in turn would reduce illiteracy, (2) Knowledge would become a commodity for exchange on the open market; the ethos of secrecy would be removed, (3) Information and education would reach more people; thus provide adequate skilled labor, and (4) Adult learners would be better prepared in the decision making process. At the national level, ignorance, timidity, fear and suspicion would become minimal to make way for political, economic and social development - adult learners and the bureaucrats alike.

One last way to look at what the establishment of an educational communications infrastructure may mean to Nigeria is to consult McCrone and Cnuddle (1967) on the process of democratic political development. They concluded the following:

> (1) Democratic political development occurs when mass communications permeates society. Education affects democratic political development by contributing the growth of mass communications, therefore -
> (2) Mass communication occurs when literacy and educational levels rise in society. Urbanization affects democratic political development primarily by increasing educational levels, which then increase mass communication, therefore -
> (3) Educational and literacy development occur in urbanizing society (p.78).

Implications

The study raises some concerns about Nigeria's future circumstances especially in the ability to face the illiteracy problem, ensure skilled labor, enhance development, and promote a better living condition for the people. Nigeria needs to move from paper resolves to action, but the proposed educational communications infrastructure tends to ask both the Federal and State governments for a rethinking about whether Nigeria is ready to change from an oral society to a written society. In addition, the study serves as an eye-opener to the need for Nigeria to demonstrate that adult learners are capable of making reasonable decisions because they understand or can understand their political, economic and social processes.

References

Adimorah, E.N.O. (1983), "An analysis of progress made by public libraries as social institutions in Nigeria." Unesco Journal of Information Science, Librarianship and Archives Administration. Vol. 5, No. 3, p.160-167, 193, July, September.

Ajayi-Dopemu, Y. (1985). "Educating through television in Nigeria." Journal of Educational Television. Vol. 2, No. 2, p.115-21.

Blackemore, S. & Cooksey, B. (1980). A sociology of education for Africa. London: George Allen & Unwin, p.19.

Boyd, D.A. & Straubhaar, J.D. (1985). "Developmental impact of the home video cassette recorder on third world countries." Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media. Vol. 29, No. 1, Winter p.5-21.

Brown, M.G. "Education among the Grain Coast Tribes," in E. A. Yoloye and S.N. Nwosu (eds.) Foundations of African Education. Vol. 2, Ibadan, WCATEA p.210-34 (NIMEO).

Directory of adult education centres in Africa (1979). Breda, Dakar: Regional Office for Education in Africa Documentation and Information Service.

Enaohwo, J.O. (1984). "An ideology of educational planning in Nigeria." Journal of Educational Thought. Vol. 18, No. 3, p.162-67, December.

Hawthorne, E.P. (1978). The management of technology. Maidenhead, England: McGraw-Hill Book Company (UK) Limited.

Lerner, D. (1957). "Communication systems and social systems: A statistical exploration in history and policy," Behavioral Science, p.266-275.

McCrone, D.J. & Cnuddle, C.F. (1967). "Toward a communication theory of democratic political development: A causal model." American Political Science. p.72-79.

Nduka, O. (1964). Western education and the Nigerian cultural background. London: Oxford University Press.

Nzotta, B.C. (1985). "Education and training of library personnel in Nigeria: Some challenges for the next decade," Education for Information. Vol. 3, No. 1, p.39-49, March.

Olusola, S. (1983). "The video shock," Inter-Media. Vol. II, p.64.

Omolewa, M. (1984). "The first year of Nigeria's mass literacy campaign and new prospects," Convergence: An International Journal of Education. Vol. 17, No. 1, p.55-62.

Pool, Ithiel, de Sola (1966). "Communications and development," in Myron Weiner (ed.), Modernization: The dynamics of growth. New York: Basic Books.

Whiting, G.C. (1976). "How does communication interface with change," in Everett M. Rogers (ed.) Communication and development. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.

Woodhouse, H.R. (1985). "Knowledge and educational dependency," Interchange. Vol. 16, No. 2, p.1-16, Summer.

NEEDS, INTERESTS AND ADULT LEARNING

by

PETER JARVIS*

Abstract: This paper reports on a piece of research into adult learning focusing upon two aspects of the learning processes, those of disjuncture between biography and experience and of reflection upon alternative realities. It relates this discussion to the concepts of needs and interests, relating the former to the many debates that have occurred within the literature about needs and the latter to the work of Habermas and Mezirow, inter alia.

Adult learning has become the focus of a great deal of academic interest in recent years, especially since some writers have tried to break away from the psychological mould. Perhaps Freire's work was among the first to point adult educators to the social implications of learning. However, there are many issues missing in this work for a full-blown theory of radical adult learning, including any real discussion on a theory of action relating to such learning. Other writers have also looked at the social effects of learning, e.g. Kemmis (1985), and still others have concentrated upon other facets of the learning process, e.g. Mezirow (1981) on reflection. Dominating the scene in one respect, and yet not being thoroughly understood in another, has been Habermas.

This paper starts with a selective discussion of that theory of learning and then draws from it two main points which relate to those writers mentioned above and also to others who have concentrated their discussions on specific aspects of this topic, such as Illich (1977) and Armstrong (1982).

Adult Learning

In some recent research into adult learning (Jarvis, 1987) it was suggested that all learning begins from a point of disjuncture between the learner's biography and current experience, but that such learning is not simple nor homogeneous but complex. In the model of learning produced in this research there are twelve responses to a potential learning experience and among these are different types of learning. It was claimed, for instance, that the first three responses to a potential learning experience are of the non-learning variety. However, even here there is a major point of difference - for the first of these types - called presumption - occurs when there is no disjuncture between biography and experience, so that the actor presumes upon the world and acts upon it but without learning. The other two types of non-learning follow disjuncture, they are non-consideration and rejection. For a variety of reasons a potential learning experience occurs but no learning follows. In contrast, all nine learning types follow disjuncture between biography and experience. Thus it may be seen that in eleven of the twelve possible responses to a potential learning experience postulated in this research begin with disjuncture and because there is no disjuncture in the twelfth no learning can occur.

In this research, nine responses to a potential learning experience result in learning, but the nine types are different types of learning. Now they fall into distinctive categories and there are two ways in which they can be categorised: in the first instance there are three non-rflective forms of learning - pre-conscious, skills and memorization and there are six forms of reflective learning - contemplation, reflective skills and experimental knowledge and these can each result in conformist or innovative outcomes. However, all the non-reflective forms of learning also result in conformist outcomes, so that another categorisation is between those outcomes which are innovative and those which are conformist. Whilst it might appear to be labouring a point, it must be stressed that not all reflective learning is innovative and, indeed, it is suggested that much of it is actually conformist. Now this distinction constitutes much of the discussion in the final section of this paper and further reference to it will be made below.

---

*University of Surrey

Need and Adult Learning

The concept of need has been with writers about adult education for many decades and yet it has been one of those terms which have strangely defied agreement or definition. Indeed, the term has been used in such a wide variety of ways that it has almost become a meaningless phrase and one of the reasons for this is that it has been analysed from the perspective of so many different academic disciplines relating to adult education, e.g. philosophy, psychology, social work, sociology and studies of ideology. In addition to all of these approaches, Wiltshire (1973) rightly claimed that the very use of the term begged a number of significant questions about the professional ethic and pointed out that its use drove a wedge between theory and practice. It was also Wiltshire who drew a distinction between individual and community needs. Wiltshire viewed individual needs as learning needs and it is at this point that it is possible to begin to relate the concept of need to the idea of disjuncture between biography and experience in the research in learning described above.

In biology, the concept of need refers to an imbalance in the system due to either an excess or deficiency of one element and that this must be rectified if the system is to regain a stable equilibrium. A similar approach adopted by critical theorists, Geuss (1981, p.46), for instance, suggests that:

> 'needs' are defined relative to the sucessful functioning of an individual or social organism; if the 'needs' of the organism are not satisfied, it will malfunction.

Geuss goes on to point out that the idea of successful functioning is itself open to considerable discussion since when does a person, or society, function successfully or pathologically? Clearly this indicates the ideological nature of both the individual and the social system, a point which Armstrong (1982) made forcefully about the concept of need within adult education theory. But the point about this is that because individuals do not live in isolation, they do function within a number of systems. People and their immediate worlds are one such system, a type of mini-system between their experience and their biography, within a maxi-system comprising a multitude of mini-systems. When the system is functioning successfully, then people can presume upon their world, act upon it as if it were unchanging and, taking it for granted, they can act unthinkingly. In other words, they have a non-learning experience. But when disjuncture occurs between their biography and their experience, the mini-system cannot function smoothly. In other words, they have a learning need, one which has to be satisfied so that the system can again function in harmony.

However, this type of needs analysis almost assumes that the individual is reactive to the pressures of the mini-system and, ultimately, has little or no choice. It was pointed out in the research that learning begins with either a proactive or a reactive situation and herein lies one of the weaknesses of needs analysis. It calls into question the manner in which the concept of need is framed, as Giddens (1987, pp. 68-69) writes:

> Human social systems do not have needs, except as counter-factually posited 'as if' properties. It is perfectly appropriate, and often necessary, to enquire what conditions are needed for the persistence of a given set of social institutions over a specified period of time. But such as enquiry invites analysis of the mechanics of social reproduction, it does not supply an explanation for them. All large scale reproduction occurs under conditions of 'mixed intentionality'. In other words, the perpetuation of social institutions involves some kind of mix of intended and unintended outcomes of action.

This insightful analysis of Giddens points to the necessity of understanding human action more fully, and for adult educators, for understanding the social context of learning, even to understanding learning per se more thoroughly. In the research reported above it was pointed out that there are three types of learning response to disjuncture; these are non-learning, non-reflective learning and reflective learning with this latter having either conformist or innovative outcomes. It was also argued that for a variety of reasons the most likely learning outcome is of a conformist nature. Clearly, then, the non-reflective and conformist reflective outcomes re-establish the mini-system so that it can function smoothly but the other responses are much more problematic. Non-learning may well result either in avoidance of the recreation of a similar system or a pathological functioning of the system through some form of suppression of the need. By contrast, innovative learning might well call into question the basis of the original system, so that either the actor endeavours to change other elements in the system in order to re-establish harmony or if those elements in the system cannot be changed then there is some form of disharmony within the mini-system that results in the learner freeing him/herself from the system in order to seek harmony within a different system. Thus it may be seen that not all innovative learning necessarily results in change in the system, it might result in change in the location of the learner in order to create a fully functioning system within which the learner re-establishes harmony with the wider world.

Why people respond the way that they do raises psychological questions about motivation, supression, etc. and sociological questions about the social climate within which the disjuncture occurs etc., which are beyond the scope of this paper, but it is clear that when wants equate with needs then such a response occurs. However, a similar argument cannot be produced for interests and, consequently, the next section of this paper explores learning and interests.

Interest and Adult Learning

The concept of interest may be exployed in two different ways: those of 'being interested in' and 'one's own interest'. The first of these relates more closely to 'wants' which relates to needs and was referred to above, whilst the second constitutes the focus of this section. In this sense, interest refers to the benefit or advantage that individuals may gain as a result of another's or one's own actions. Underlying this idea is the one which presupposes that individuals actually know what are their own interests. However, sociological literature is full of illustrations which suggest that this does not actually occur. Among the best known of these is the concept of the deferential voter - often the poor, lower class person who supports the political party that bolsters the position of the wealthy and encourages the continued exploitation of the poor. This led Marx to postulate the concept of false class consciousness and Habermas (1972) to concentrate upon the ideas of false consciousness and interest. People who suffer from an ideologically false consciousness, so the critical theorists claim, do not know their real interest and consequently when they are in a potential learning situation, they may merely respond to the disjuncture by learning sufficient for the mini-system to function harmoniously again, rather than considering their real interest and learning in an innovative reflective manner and becoming liberated from their system. For Habermas self-reflection is the key to emancipatory learning, because only through it can people become aware that they are entrapped within a system that does not further their interests. Clearly then for Habermas interest relates to the 'good life', and as such becomes significant for educational philosophy as well as learning theory.

At the heart of Habermas' (1972) thinking lies the idea that through self-reflection individuals might be enlightened and emancipated. Enlightenment is necessary since the people are freed from their false consciousness about the world and emancipated because they are freed from the coercion that has made them view it in that false manner. It is not the purpose of this paper to discuss Habermas' theory of interests leading to emancipatory learning fully since it is neither self-evident nor necessarily acceptable (see Geuss, 1981, Ottman, 1982 inter alia). Indeed, he has subsequently changed his position considerably and it would entail another paper to discuss these points (see Bernstein, 1985). The intention here is to point to the fact that interests have occupied a major place in theorising about reflection and learning.

However, it might be asked, how do people learn their own true interests through self-reflection, since they are still social persons when they reflect and therefore still going to think in the terms of their previous socialisation? This was a question that C. Wright Mills (1970 ed) asked and he concluded that when people see that their private troubles fit into the wider society, they will understand more about the social process. Clearly, this type of knowledge can make some people aware of the fact that society does not always function in their own interest and, therefore, they might respond to a potential learning experience in a more innovative manner. This, however, relies on people developing a sociological imagination and then acting upon the insights that it provides. For Habermas, however, interest is profoundly significant because it is the phenomenon which it mediates between reason and desire: "To speak of an agent's 'interests' is to speak of the way that agent's particular desires could be rationally integrated into a coherent 'good life'" (Geuss, 1981, pp. 47-48). For Habermas, this is more than an ideological position - it is a matter of discovering actual knowledge, discovering 'perfect' empirical knowledge and reflecting upon it and learning in an innovatory manner. However, the idea of discovering such perfect knowledge raises all types of problems about the nature of knowledge and reason and freedom. But there is also an over-estimation in the powers of self-reflection (Ottman, 1982) to achieve this freedom. Habermas seemed to assume that reflection automatically reveals the fallacies within the social experience of the thinkers, makes the thinkers aware of the real origins of their experience and even of the manner in which the unconscious determinants of conscious behaviour operate and, therefore, frees the individuals.

This indeed would require perfect knowledge! Habermas himself recognised this weakness in his initial formulation of self-reflection, he saw that he had combined two different approaches to self-reflection - both to be found in writings of Emanuel Kant: The first is the idea that self-reflection can grasp 'the universal and necessary conditions for the very possibility of theoretical knowledge, practical reason, and teleological and aesthetic judgment ... the second ... aims at freeing the subject from hypostatized powers' (Bernstein, 1985, p.12). Interests, as opposed to the perpetuation of the system, might lead to self-reflection and to innovative learning on occasions but the context in which this occurs needs further investigation.

Neither is it surprising that reflection plays an important role in theories of learning, although few learning theorists have yet begun to work these ideas out thoroughly. It was Mezirow (1981), however, who began to undertake this in his expansion of Habermas' idea of reflection, implicitly indicating that Habermas's ideas needed reformulating by producing seven levels of reflectivity. Mezirow (1981, p.13), whilst acknowledging that the degree to which reflectivity is age-related is unknown, claimed that critical reflectivity is a uniquely adult activity. This claim does raise the spectre of the endless discussion of the definition of an adult and since it rests on assumption rather than evidence, it is one that will not be pursued here. However, it is suggested that the possibility of being aware of one's own interests is more likely if alternative possibilities exist in the mind of the thinker, as C. Wright Mills implied and as Mannheim (1936, p.142) argued, and that the possibility of these alternatives having been discovered may relate to age and certainly relates to previous experience. Therefore, in the process of self-reflection, the possibility of innovative thinking exists; the greater the level of previous knowledge, experience and awareness of alternative solutions, the more likely it is to occur. In this sense, by being in the possession of a range of knowledge opens the possibility that innovatory ideas might arise that emancipate the learners from their immediate mini-systems because they have to make a choice and this, thereafter, might have effects on society provided that they do not merely remove themselves from one set of existing mini-systems and locate themselves in another without actually seeking to change the systems.

Interests, then, provide one reason why people might think critically when they have disjuncture between their experience and biography and they provide one indication of why innovative reflective learning might occur. But it would be unwise to limit the possibilities of innovatory reflective learning to interests since there may be other factors that relate to it and the question about how individuals suffering false consciousness, if such a phenomenon exists at all, might discover their true interests.

Conclusion

Disjuncture between biography and current experience lies at the start of all learning but the extent to which learning results in change is much more complex as this discussion on needs and interests indicates. But this paper has only raised some of the questions that theorists of learning need to consider rather than provided many answers.

Bibliography

Armstrong P F (1982) The Needs Meeting Ideology of Liberal Adult Education in *The International Journal of Lifelong Education* Vol 1 no.4 pp. 293-321

Bernstein R J (1985) Habermas and Modernity Oxford Polity Press

Boud D, et al (eds.) (1985) *Reflection: Turning Experience into Learning* London Kogan Page

Geuss R (1981) *The Idea of Critical Theory* Cambridge Cambridge University Press

Giddens A (1987) *Social Theory and Modern Sociology* Oxford Polity Press

Habermas J (1972) *Knowledge and Human Interests* London Heinemann

Jarvis P (1987) *Adult Learning in the Social Context* London Croom Helm

Kemmis S (1985) Action Research and the Politics of Reflection in Boud et al *op cit*

Mannheim K (1936) *Ideology and Utopia* London Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd.

Mezirow J (1981) A Critical Theory and Adult Learning and Education in *Adult Education* Vol.32 No.1 pp. 3-24 Washington

Ottman H (1982) Cognitive Interest and Self-Reflection in Thompson and Held (eds) *op cit*

Thompson J B and Held D (1982) *Habermas: Critical Debates* London MacMillan Press

Wiltshire H (1973) The Concept of Learning and Need in Adult Education in *Studies in Adult Education* Vol.5 No.1

Wright Mills C (1970 ed) *The Sociological Imagination* Harmondsworth Pelican

CULTURE AND SYMBOLISM IN TRANSIENT ORGANISATIONS:

A study in the training of unemployed adults in the UK.

PAUL JEFFCUTT
Lecturer in Post Compulsory Education, Faculty of Educational Studies, University of Southampton, England.

ABSTRACT: This paper will analyse and investigate current work in the field of organisation culture and symbolism. The relationship of this work to Post Compulsory Education will be developed through an examination of longitudinal research in a transient educational organisation.

Over the past 15 years in the U.K., Post Compulsory Education (PCE) has been experiencing institutional change on a vast scale with a proliferation of provision, providers and educational settings (JEFFCUTT - 1987). This most complex and volatile sector of education and training is currently characterised by a multiplicity of co-existing organisational forms. Not only have traditional institutions been restructured to work across internal and external boundaries, but a whole plethora of educational organisations have been newly created and empowered (JEFFCUTT - 1986)

Of particular interest to organisation researchers are those deliberately transient organisations that have been established to work with particular educational populations and needs. These transient organisations are frequently brought into being by direct or indirect sponsorship from central government, usually given for a fixed term of up to one year. The term 'scheme' is widely applied to describe these transient organisations, which are predominantly concerned with the unemployed. 'Schemes', covering an enormous variety of activities and operations, have become entirely normal structures in PCE over the past 15 years.

The exploration and understanding of organisations as cultures can be distinguished from other approaches in Organisation Studies (MORGAN - 1983) by its concentration on symbolism and meaning. Researchers are concerned to uncover what it means to be organised in particular settings, or put another way, those understandings that give an institution or sub-group a sense of itself (frequently to do with uniqueness). The anthropologist GEERTZ (1973) represents culture as a living reality, 'a precious web' in which we are suspended. It is appropriate, I feel, to view organisation culture as both a living and lived reality, since we are also spinning our precious web as well as apprehending that which has been spun. A dynamic order should be pictured; nowhere is there stasis, but a moving framework of interpretation through which past present and future are articulated and reproduced. The research work I have conducted into organisation culture has been primarily concerned with the revelation, exploration and explication of such a moving framework (see figure 1).

The organisational volatility of PCE provides unique opportunities for researchers investigating organisations as cultures. In a general sense most if not all PCE settings will be novel, since organisation culture research has predominately concentrated on industrial and commercial industry (see TURNER 1986 for an overview of settings under investigation). Organisation culture research in PCE thus offers the opportunity of developmental work in a fresh sector. Methodolically, the transient organisations of PCE provide particularly fruitful settings, since organisation culture research has been predominantly conducted in mature or established organisations. Longitudinal studies of mature organisations have to rely on retrospective data collection when investigating former organisational events; here, the myth building perspective of hindsight compresses organisational dynamics into a succession of focal points identified retrospectively. A real-time study in a newly created organisation replaces hindsight with uncertainty, and charts the emergence and overlay of organisational images, permitting investigation of the very substance of culture creation. A complete longitudinal study of an organisation in real-time provides particularly useful insight into important issues in organisation culture research (e.g. the 'birth', persistence, change, and 'death' of an organisation culture).

The particular transient organisation that is the focus of this paper was a government sponsored retraining scheme for the female adult unemployed (henceforth referred to as 'the programme') located in an industrial city in northern England. The focus of my research in this setting has been with issues of persistence and change in meanings that describe the participants experience of being organised. This investigation rests on an analysis of metaphors and extended/sustained metaphors (analogies/stories) during a one year participant observer study, (for a more detailed analysis of this research strategy, see JEFFCUTT 1984).

These explorations of organisation culture have focussed on metaphor - a powerful and paradoxical vehicle for understanding patterns of persistence and change in meaning.'Metaphor'does not here solely refer to a single figure of discourse, but to what Aristotle describes as the principle of transference common to all discourse (see RICOEUR 1977 p237). Indeed some philosophers of language would plausibly argue that all thought is metaphorical: e.g. MILLER (1982 p137) proposes a seven fold typology of metaphorical transference 'from and through which all thought derives'.If we were to accept that our processes of thought (the ordering, relating, and classifying of meaning) are metaphorical, clearly our processes of articulation of these meanings and our interpretations of other articulations and artifacts would be metaphorical too. In short if all thought is metaphorical, then organisation culture must also be essentially metaphorical.

As TURNER (1986) so aptly observes, organisation culture can be conceived of as a 'transmitted tradition'. However, this tradition is nowhere unitary or static, as it is continually being actively reconstituted by the organisation's members. Such an understanding proposes a paradoxical experience of organisation culture - as one where invention and discovery coincide. Yet, our own experience would tell us that participating in an organisation rarely feels as if we are at the frontiers of meaning production. Indeed the particular dislocations or disorientations that would enable us to experience this are accidental and rare.It would seem that an organisation culture largely serves to protect us from such uncertainty through the comfort of projections and intimations of the future, from a foundation in tradition, (see figure 1).

The above understanding of organisation culture has obvious implications for two crucial issues that are the subject of extensive current debate. Firstly, intervening in organisations, which is largely considered through the question of how organisation culture is knowable. WILLIAMS (1981 p181) asserts that 'culture is never a form in which people happen to be living at some isolated moment but a selection and organisation of past and present necessarily providing for its own continuity'. This observation that culture is only knowable in terms of its past and future, not its present, fits well with the apocryphal fish and water analogy - (or as McLUHAN (1969) observes, 'environment' is invisible only 'content' or 'anti-environments' are recognisable).In this case, perhaps organisation culture can only be fully appreciated as a skin that has been shed.

Secondly, there is the issue of control and change in organisation culture. The best way of exploring this question is to restate it. Organisation cultures are continually changing - everywhere are subtle adaptions, redescriptions, and re-orderings - these may not be easily noticeable, but a longitudinal attachment to an organisation makes some of these 'normal' changes apparent. Any intervention in an organisation will produce change, however, to believe, like the sorcerers apprentice, that particular interventions will accurately produce predetermined sets of outcomes seems to me both naive and dangerous. Alluring as such cultural prescription and engineering appears to be, its ethos is fundamentally totalitarian. Even the most extreme of interventions i.e. the destruction of one organisation culture and the creation of a replacement, does not guarantee cultural control. Such 'managerialist'expectations are founded in a fundamental misapprehension of the complex processes of meaning production. There is a clear conceptual difference between 'normal' and 'abnormal' change in organisation culture, or as GAGLIARDI (1984) distinguishes between 'evolution' and 'revolution'. From this basis, the orientation of any intervention in organisation culture is fundamental. Once the important difference between 'explorers' and 'conquistadors' (JEFFCUTT, 1985) has been exposed, the crucial issue in organisation culture change becomes the uncovering of an organisations parameters of normality.

My research work in organisation culture and symbolism has enabled me to produce the following expression of the major strands of an organisation culture. This dynamic framework exhibits a continuity between feeling, thought and action, through which past, present and future are articulated and reproduced.

Figure 1 Organisation Culture

Feelings/Senses	Metaphoric Concepts	Actions
What is familiar	Belonging	Boundaries
What is normal	Conformity	Prescriptions
What is connected	History	Traditions
What could happen	Potency	Projects

Let us explore this framework further by working through an example from 'the programme'. This transient organisation was created to work with mature unemployed women with the aim of helping them to return to employment. By taking a central theme, the persistence and change in trainers images of trainee needs, we can observe a sorry tale which exhibits an organisation with very narrow parameters of normality.

At first, whilst planning the programme and its curriculum, the trainers had no actual trainees to work with, thus they borrowed history from other settings and mixed with their preconceptions of likely populations, produced the following dominant images of trainees:-

- 'inadequate', 'ignorant', 'failures'.
- 'lacking in confidence', 'lapsed skills'.
- 'traditionally conditioned women'.
- 'not wanting equality','won't accept responsibility'.

These images were summed up by the Team Leader who suggested, the trainees would be - 'The Doris's, Glady's, and Freda's of the World'.Basically, in this design stage the trainers images of trainees could be seen as the deficit model writ large in sexist and ageist terms.

The outcome of this planning process was, as could well be imagined, a simplistic and patronising curriculum. Trainees were told at the launch that the programme would be 'comfy', 'like a home from home', and 'the kettle would always be on'. Indeed tea talk pervaded many conversations and provided significant rituals - e.g. the only area of activity in which the trainees were given any responsibility was tea making. Their role was otherwise strictly passive, with the trainers as active - almost as entertainer and audience, (trainers spoke of 'razamatazz' and 'doing a turn'). Trainees were expected to participate in the programme as if they were the studio audience of a T.V. game show; they had a limited but essential role to play. Hardly surprisingly some of the women did not wish to fit themselves into these pre-ordained moulds, and attempted to gently sabotage activities through portraying their competence. Trainers perceived these manifestations of trainee competence and independence as threatening, and referred to them as 'red lights'.Resistance was scapegoated (jokes about female assertiveness - 'wearing trousers') and passivity rewarded. Trainee action was nowhere radical or sustained enough to dislodge trainers from their patronising "Coronation Street Script" (the Team Leader again - referring to a popular T.V.programme, a working class soap opera set coincidentally in the same industrial city in Northern England as the training programme was located).

Trainee images were confused and ambivalent, they certainly enjoyed the feelings of attention they received - 'I felt left on the shelf before'. However, they were at the same time, clearly suspicious of this unexpected attention ('red-carpet treatment'), and were concerned about the fragility of their experience - 'It's easy for it to slip, then its all gone'. The programme was somehow all rather unreal - 'like a magic wand', full of euphoria and false hope - 'like a fairy tale', but deliciously so.

The formally defined (by the sponsors and trainers) objective for the programme was the simple outcome - 'getting jobs'. However, at the end of each programme, most if not all of the women returned to the circumstances they had left. The programme was clearly much more concerned with any job rather than appropriate jobs, and with quantity rather than quality. In this so called 'numbers-game' individual trainee needs play a minimal part, 'turnover' and 'throughput' are the major concerns. Despite some judicious manipulation of the statistics in the trainers final report, the programme eventually appeared to 'lose' this 'numbers game'. In total, very few jobs of any sort were got, and the programme did not immediately gain that which was desired, a further period of sponsorship, (i.e. the 'renewal' of the organisation).

The trainers response to this perceived failure of the programme was to blame the trainees in a reinforcement of the deficit model (in similar terms as at the outset). Trainees were either:- 'too old' and thus 'hard to shift', (there was much discussion about the establishment of an age limit to be recommended for the selection of trainees) ; or, 'not motivated enough'. Motivation was again explained in sexist terms - 'they don't have the drive', 'they want their hands holding a bit more', 'they have niggling problems' - all these classic observations were summed up by the Team Leader - 'learning to be like the fellas takes a lot longer'.

Trainees were followed up for 3 months after the end of the programme - their views on their experience ranged from regretful resignation - 'it was nice while it lasted' - to the angry, feeling cheated - 'I feel like I've fallen off a pedestal, no-one was there to pick me up' - 'I would have been better off if it hadn't happened at all'.

The objectives of trainers and trainees alike provided themes which shaped the culture of this transient organisation. For trainers, the overarching theme of the programme was one of 'renewal' - the desire for a further period of sponsorship (the extension of the active 'life' of the programme). For trainees, the overarching theme of the programme was one of 'personal growth' - each trainee having an individual and collective story of change and self development.

These themes are by no means mutually exclusive or contradictory, yet the tracing of these themes through the 'programme' culture provides painful and destructive oppositions. Male trainers having prescribed and enforced dependant and submissive roles for female trainees then blame the same trainees for their incapacity to take on assertive and independent roles in the gaining of employment. Yet the 'renewal' of the programme, the trainers believed, would depend upon the success of trainees in getting jobs. Paradoxically, the curriculum that was unflinchingly provided was one that disabled rather than enabled this outcome.

The programme's debilitating parameters of normality were maintained even unto the 'death' of the organisation. The confines of this normality were prescribed immutably for an assumed population with uniform needs which nowhere actually existed. Actual needs which surfaced and extended beyond the 'entertainment' provided were either deferred or suppressed. Trainees had to conform to, and make the best of, an unvarying curriculum which largely opposed their development. Yet, surprisingly enough, even from this spartan diet, some trainees discovered resources that enabled them to make some progress.

These observations on 'the programme' are necessarily a partial slice from a larger research project, condensed for the purposes of this paper. Further writing on this organisation will deal with a more complex web of themes, oppositions and paradoxes (JEFFCUTT - forthcoming).As well as enabling sectoral and methodological innovation, this research has contributed to the further consideration of the following important issues :-

- symbolism and change in educational organisations
- enabling and disabling curricula for the unemployed
- sexism and work preparation.

REFERENCES

GAGLIARDI, P (1984) 'The Creation and Change of Organisational Cultures'*

GEERTZ, C. (1973) 'The Interpretation of Cultures'. New York. Basic Books.

JEFFCUTT, P. (1984) 'Metaphors of the Organisation'.*

JEFFCUTT, P. (1985) 'Organisation Discourse'.CEBES Journal Vol. 1 No.2

JEFFCUTT, P. (ed.) (1986) 'Institutional Change in Post Compulsory Education'. Leicester.National Institute of Adult Continuing Education.

JEFFCUTT, P. (1987) 'The M.S.C. as an agent of change in Education and Training'.The P.C.E. Papers No.1

JEFFCUTT, P. (Forthcoming) 'Persistence and Change in an Organisation Culture', Ph.D. Thesis, University of Manchester.

McLUHAN, M. (1969) 'Counterblast'. London, Rapp & Whiting.

MILLER, D. (1982) 'Metaphor, Thinking and Thought'. Etcetera, Vol 39 No 2.

MORGAN, G. (ed.) (1983) 'Beyond Method'. London. Sage.

RICOEUR, P. (1977) 'The Rule of Metaphor'. Toronto. University of Toronto Press.

TURNER, B. (1986) 'Sociological Aspects of Organisational Symbolism'. Organisation Studies Vol 7, No 7.

WILLIAMS, R. (1981) 'Culture'. Glasgow. Fontana.

* = Paper presented at the First International Conference on Organisational Symbolism and Corporate Culture. University of Lund, Sweden.

MUSIC AS A FACILITATOR OF ADULT LEARNING

Gwendolyn Kaltoft
Doctoral Candidate, Teachers College/Columbia University,
AEGIS (Adult Education Guided Independent Studies) Program,
New York, New York.

Abstract: A report of research in progress on a study of the effect of music in community adult education programs. Major emergent themes are discussed with respect to the learners' and educators' perceptions of music as a facilitator of adult learning.

Introduction Music and song have been a vital component of many adult community education programs. The music of a culture tells a story. It reflects the struggles, the joys and celebrations, the pain and defeat, and the triumphs of a society. Adult educators are just beginning to become aware of the potential of using music to foster growth. Through listening to the music and song and participating in musical activities, people are often able to inspect their social value systems, view the roots of their customs, and appreciate their cultural heritage.

Purpose The purpose of the study is to enhance understanding of how music can be used to foster the learning process and how music serves as a catalyst for social action. The strategy of the research is to learn from educators and participants, by talking with them about their perceptions of how music helped them better understand themselves, their experience, and their cultural heritage.

While it is clear that music is only one of many educational tools employed in each of the programs, at the same time, the focus of the study is to determine the impact and effect of the music in the total learning process. Further, there is a concerted effort throughout the study to consistently differentiate between the learners' and the educators' perceptions of music as lyrics or story, and music as tune or rhythm and beat.

Literature Contribution This study is grounded in three general bodies of literature. The first, from a theoretical perspective, discusses adult education and the arts. Much of the literature in this category has come from work in England and Canada. Jones and Chadwick, in their collection of essays on Adult Education and the Arts, have expressed a concern about the relationship between the arts and society. They suggest we need to examine our value systems about the arts and our definition of art to see if it truly reflects experience and understanding. John Hursey, similarly, has called for a need to bridge the gap between a social attitude that music is reserved for only the cultured middle and upper classes and what he considers the rich mine of personal expressiveness for every person, regardless of class, to explore.

This theoretical body of literature is complemented by the work of Maxine Greene, who describes a wide-awakedness in the learning process. She stresses a need to utilize the arts in educational experiences and expresses a concern for the relevance of the aesthetic experience of the adult learner. Biasini and Pogonowski assert that music is an expressive medium, and that through this forceful language learners may achieve a way of knowing and experiencing. These authors suggest that involvement with music provides exercise for intuitive, inductive, and deductive thinking, and also allows for personal exploration.

A second body literature has been generated by a group of community adult education programs that have come to recognize music as an important facilitator of adult learning. This body of writings centers around the uses of music in social issues, and cultural empowerment activites. For example, through her work at the Highlander Research and Education Center, Zilphia Horton became concerned that music too often has been considered merely as an art form for leisure time, performed for and enjoyed by a chosen few. She suggested that people could be made aware that many of the songs of their everyday lives -- songs about their work, hopes, joys, and sorrows -- are songs of merit. When music was used in this manner, Zilphia felt people grew in appreciation, and realized dignity and pride in their cultural heritage. Music and song were also used in the Danish Folk Schools, not only to stir and enliven the people, but also as a medium for cultural heritage perpetuation. Frank Adams has suggested that music was used toward an end of creating a picture of what ought to be -- as a communication of a revolutionary spark -- in the Danish Folk Schools.

A third body of literature is also critical for framing the study. The major focus of the study is to create an understanding of how music can be used as a tool for implementing a transformational learning process. Jack Mezirow's theory of perspective transformation is relevant, as are Freire's discussions of consciousness raising, praxis, and the participatory process in learning. Freire's coding system, which has not been studied extensively, would also appear to apply here. Both of these adult educators emphasize the necessity of the dialogic and self-reflective domains of learning. This body of literature is especially important as it is pivotal to the nature of the research.

Programs The study is taking place in community adult education program settings known for their use of music in the learning process. These programs use activities that involve music to enhance the learners' critical awareness of their experiences. The three programs selected for this study were recommended by experts in the field as exemplary. They provide examples of how music can be used as a catalyst for change, as a facilitator of personal empowerment, and as a medium for fostering the appreciation of cultural heritage. The three programs all contain community education activities where music is an integral part of the learning environment.

The three programs are the Highlander Research and Education Center in New Market, Tennessee; the Augusta Heritage Center at Davis & Elkins College, Elkins, West Virginia; and the On-The-Line Music Collective in Toronto, Ontario.

Programs I will explain the programs briefly to provide an understanding of the context in which the music activities take place.

The Highlander Center is a residential education and research center located on a Tennessee mountain farm, where most of the members of the small staff live. Frank Adams wrote about Highlander in the Harvard Educational Review: "There is a history of leaders and groups who are ahead of their time...there is a history of 'commonfolk' struggling to become, and becoming their own leaders.. a history of alternative educational perspectives." For forty years through the inspiration of Myles Horton and the Highlander staff programs have developed which were tied to the history of the South and the Appalachian mountains where Highlander is located. The major program thrusts have changed with the times and have included the labor struggles of the 30's, the civil rights movement, and Appalachian cultural issues. Highlander is committed to beginning the educational process where people are, and is dedicated to the goal of helping participants develop the fulfillment of democracy.

Augusta was the historic name of West Virginia during its period of earliest settlement. Today the Augusta Heritage Center is a program dedicated to preserving the values and sense of craft of those early homesteaders. The Center's home is at Davis & Elkins College -- a small liberal arts college on the edge of the Monongehela National Forest. A series of summer workshops is the cornerstone of the Augusta Heritage Center programming. Activities also include a Festival that culminates the summer sessions, an annual Winter Workshop, production of educational out-reach programs, field research and documentation of folk arts and folk culture, and production and recording of West Virginia traditional music. Music is a major focus in the program activities -- it is a connection between all the other art forms celebrated at Augusta.

The On-The-Line Music Collective developed informally and somewhat accidentally out of the political singing and songwriting efforts of those individuals involved during the early 1980's. The Collective is housed in Toronto, Ontario, and uses music to bring people together around social issues. The Collective's philosophy includes a belief that political struggles and song are natural allies, and that music facilitates an ease of communication and a willingness to participate in collective problem solving. The Collective also believes that participation in the process of a songwriting workshop provides opportunity for expression for group members who are struggling to define problems in the their respective workplaces or groups. On-The-Line Collective members facilitate songwriting workshops for a wide variety of groups inclusive of trade unions, university women faculty and administrators, poor and immigrant women's groups, and international groups.

Methods The research is being carried out in two phases. The purpose of the first phase was to develop a baseline of information and to familiarize the researcher with a language that would facilitate development of the structured interview guides, which are the major methods for data collection in the second phase of the research.

The data for phase one were collected with three basic methodologies -- unstructured interviews, critical incidents, and participant observations. Inclusive of a field test site, four participant observations were completed, fifty critical incidents were collected from learners and five from educators, and a total of nine unstructured interviews were tape recorded and transcribed. Eight of the nine unstructured interviews were conducted with program educators.

Using what was learned during the exploratory stage, a standardized set of questions was developed for a second round of questions. The research is on-going at this point, with the structured interviews currently in progress. A grounded theory approach is being employed whereby initial results are analyzed. Emergent themes are used to adapt the structured interview guide as new areas develop.

Data Analysis Several emergent themes have been identified in the analysis of the data gathered during phase one of the research. Within the time and space constraints of this presentation it is possible to discuss only a few. One consistently recurring theme is the role of music in enhancing a connectedness with fellow learners. In each of the three program sites, program educators have spoken about the power that music has to bring people of different cultures, walks-of-life, and economic levels together. At the Highlander Center for example, a program educator said, "I feel alot of times we pull people together, we're really interested in getting people to talk, tell their stories...sometimes there are musicians. We get people who come here to Highlander for several different reasons, some of them might be more Northern or more middle class people whose education has made them have their music as a big mix of 20 kinds of music. Where other people...sing in a tradition (such as) blues, or spiritual, or mountain music...they want to be in (that) tradition and particularly they're trying to express themselves."

This interviewee's concentration was on the cross-section of social class frequently represented in the programs. The suggestion was that music is often expressive of a particular cultural tradition. At the same time he seemed to be saying that the music can override the communication barriers between different social classes or cultures when used as an expressive medium in this educational environment.

Yet another program educator, in an especially social action oriented program, spoke about her own feelings of wanting to facilitate the connection between people, and the use of music to that end: "You want so much for people to make the connections 'cause that's the work you're in. Because you know there's no hope unless people see how they're connected to other people, and how the struggles are connected and how countries are connected, you WANT that (connection) to happen. The process changes very dramatically when you use music to facilitate (the connection), I've done other kinds of facilitation too. People move out of their heads. People are more open and receptive to sharing personal stuff because music is an emotional medium."

Data Analysis Because music is an emotional medium, this educator feels she is able to facilitate a kind of connectedness that she says does not occur in other education environments. This affective dimension of connectedness, although infrequently discussed in the adult education literature, is probably crucial in facilitating collaboration and participatory involvement in the learning process. The program educator just quoted suggests that music not only can function in the same way as "ice-breaker" exercises, but at the same time it creates a sense of commonality among people. It allows people an opportunity to experience a sense of similarity or likeness--connectedness--with others with whom they otherwise would have thought a common bond was impossible.

Another program educator stressed one learner's sense of isolation with her own music and a yearning for peer connection. "She was already a powerful songwriter, for her the way to get down how she felt about things was through writing songs. But she didn't realize how many other people there were that did that. For her the most important thing about coming to some cultural workshops here were to suddenly find this network of other people who expressed themselves through their music. She (had) felt exceedingly lonesome, for her to find these other people who also used music was tremendously reinforcing."

These feelings of connection through joining with people of similar interests could be said about several educational experiences. And yet the music can be a vital link to this connectedness. In an analysis of more than 300 learner evaluation forms from the Augusta Center, I consistently found references to the manner in which the music seemed to bond the learners' experiences with those of their peers and teachers. In reponse to a question about what was the best thing about Augusta, comments such as these were common: "music in the air," ... "positive interactions with other musicians," ... "the gathering together of all these people who love this music and culture" ... "the energy, the people, being with friendly fellow musicians" ... "interaction with new people from all over the country -- interested in such wonderful music" ... and "music everywhere and everyone wants to share it ... alot of good feelings here." The music emerged as very critical to what others explained as "the music spirit..." "magical moments..." " a week of heaven...", a connection with other learners seemed to stimulate a dimension beyond the conference-like connection that occurs when people of like interests come together for educational purposes.

Another type of connectedness emerged from a learner/interviewee who had taken a class in Cajun music: "as you're doing it, you're immersing yourself, almost like walking in the shoes of somebody else--you're immersing yourself in the skin of somebody in that culture." "You internalize that music, it becomes a part of you in a way that other art forms don't...the music stays with you, you can play it over and over...it's not an isolating art form that makes you different from other people, it connects you with other people....people say again and again they made connections with other people."

The metaphor of "immersing yourself in somebody else's skin" is a powerful one with implications of being able to sense and perhaps understand the feelings of someone very different. This example seeemed to illuminate the body of literature of utilizing music for social change. That a person could imagine "walking in the shoes of another person" as a result of "feelings" stimulated by music of that culture should be further investigated.

Another dimension of connectedness was brought forth by an educator who saw (in her program): "...alot of people who are kind of loners, very shy people, very cerebral people. And they come and they are able to connect with people...in a way that you wouldn't otherwise." These comments suggested learning on a personal level where learners moved beyond themselves, and perhaps their own social isolation. This dimension will be investigated further, especially in light of the related goals of all three of the study's program sites. Additionally, the transformational and emancipatory literature of Mezirow and Freire is critical to a comprehensive interpretation of these and similar findings.

Summary While the major emergent theme of connectedness was a predominant one in the first phase of the research, the interviews and critical incidents yielded a great deal of rich descriptive data. Emergent themes correlated to both issues specific to the music, as well as to issues directly related to principles and practices of adult education and adult learning. The freedom to express onesself (individually and with a group), recognition of music as a medium for expression, a personal learning from performing, music as a universal language, music as an important part of everyday life -- all of these themes could be associated directly with the impact of the music. Whereas, themes such as collaboration, participatory involvement, problem solving, generative themes in learners' lives, transformation of self concept, and emancipatory learning might be found operative in several adult education environments and need to be inspected more closely in the second phase of the study for correlation with impact of the music.

As the three bodies of literature are further integrated into the findings, and additional themes are identified, the application of generative themes to community adult education settings will become more clear. The focus of transformational and emancipatory issues in the second phase is ongoing and supported by the first phase findings. The initial findings helped frame questions for the second phase of the research. Do learners find a unique expression potential in music? Does writing a song with a group of peers lend itself toward a participatory social activism? Does the use of music in the adult educational environment have potential for breaking down of barriers as experienced by some interviewees in their learning? And what value does all this have for the field of adult education? All of these questions represent categories for further research in the second phase of the study.

AN ABC OF INDEPENDENT STUDY:
American, British and Canadian Perspectives

Patrick Keane[1], Michael Stephens[2] and Harold Stubblefield[3]

Abstract: The authors will firstly identify some of the major Victorian handicaps and possibilities of independent study for working class adult learners. The objective will then be to explore, in a comparative and historical context, some of the major issues in this field. Attention will be directed to the differing social scenes of the countries involved, to the extent of literacy, and of various support systems. A particular emphasis will be placed on the role of lyceums or mechanics' institutes in contributing to independent study, and of the relationships of their resources to popular aspirations.

Introduction

We have used the term 'independent study' to mean self-governing education. Some historians favour seeing it as study carried out by an individual free of all institutions, but this would seem too restrictive an interpretation. To ignore the contribution of, say, the Lyceum and Mechanics Institute to independent study for nineteenth century working class learners would result in at best only part of a picture.

An American Perspective

Independent study in America in the early and mid Victorian period was characterized by a variety of motivations and agencies. All of these were intertwined with changing social conditions in the 1820s and 1830s.

a) From conditions of a rapidly expanding economy and geographical and social mobility had emerged the ideal of the "self-made" man: persons succeeded by virtue of their personal qualities.
b) A new conception of the family replaced the 18th century model of the patriarchial family in which children remained dependent on the father throughout their lifetime. Children upon becoming adults entered a new world of choice that made them personally responsible.
c) The mother's role in preparing new generations for this lifetime of choices became increasingly important. Roles between men and women were sharply distinguished, and women were assigned a "separate sphere" to be guardians of family and morality.
d) Before the Civil War (1860-1865) Protestant Christianity was the dominant force in shaping American culture. In the early decades of the 19th century, national movements of evangelical churches - Methodists, Baptists, and Presbyterians - sustained and institutionalized the revival fervour.

An ideology of self-improvement - a passion for "useful knowledge" - accompanied the new opportunities for mobility. Libraries of many types gave access to books: associational, subscription, district school, and church. Tax supported libraries began to replace private libraries. The best known of the public libraries was the Boston Public Library, founded in 1852 by the Boston elite. Their reason for founding this library reveals the mixed motivations that accompanied popular education in this period: democractic belief that adults should have means to continue learning beyond common school and social control motives for better educated and behaved workers. Segments of the population formed associations to advance their knowledge and social occupational status. Mechanics and artisans were one segment and they pursued their interest through mechanics institutes, the earliest of which in the United States was founded in 1820 New York City. The institutes provided members with a library, lectures, and exhibitions, and the institutes particularly sought to teach craftsmen the science upon which their craft was based. At the heart of this enterprise was the conception of the "scientific" or "intelligent" mechanic. Beyond his work knowledge, he would participate in community affairs and be knowledgeable about culture. Elihu Burritt, known as "the learned blackmsith", was the epitome of this new man.

Those entering the merchant class needed guidance about proper behaviour, and the merchants needed some way to screen applicants for their business competence and their personal character. Didactic literature about the importance of character and warning about the perils of the city became commonplace. In 1820 the Mercantile Library Association (MLA) of New York City was organized to establish a library, to disseminate knowledge, and to cultivate the intelligent. Educational goals soon gave way to an emphasis on the moral value of the association in cultivating correct principles in members. In time clerks seeking employment and merchants seeking employees used the MLA as a meeting place. Similar social motivations account for the founding of the Young Men's Christian Association in New York City in 1852.

The best example of this desire for self-improvement was the lyceum. Founded in 1826 by Josiah Holbrook, it was more inclusive in nature, attracting clerks, mechanics and artisans, farmers, businessmen and professionals. Intended for mutual self-improvement, the dissemination of science, and the promotion of the public education, the lyceum featured libraries, collections of scientific objects, and lectures. By 1840 the mutual self-instruction phase had ended, and the lyceums became lecture centers as communities began to import lecturers from the outside. Perhaps no institution in this period shows the unique American proclivity for learning than public lecturing. Middle class Americans and those aspiring to be wanted to understand their world, to acquire the tools to get a hold on life, and to advance themselves socially and economically. The lecturers became the cultural spokespersons who mediated between the problems adults experienced in everyday life and the sources of ideas they could use to orient their lives.

Constrained by the idea of the "separate sphere", middle class women found their outlet for learning through voluntary associations. They began first with organizing benevolent church societies and then extended their interests to social issues connected with the home: prostitution, orphans, widows, temperance, abolition, and, finally, women's rights. Within these associations women became skilled in organizing, studying social issues, and planning action.

Evangelical Protestants spearheaded humanitarian reform. They also sought to impose social and moral order in the growing cities and the expanding west by missionary work and a massive publication program through such interdenominational societies as the American Sunday School Union, the American Bible Society, and the American Tract Society. The American Sunday School Union produced "libraries" on subjects and these and others were widely distributed through district church libraries.

British Perspectives

The Industrial Revolution

The backcloth of any debate on independent study for working-class adult learners in nineteenth century Britain is the impact of the Industrial Revolution. As E J Hobsbawn states, "By any reckoning this was probably the most important event in world history, at any rate since the invention of agriculture and cities. And it was initiated by Britain". The roots of the Industrial Revolution were international, but its initial geographical focus was Britain where much of the nineteenth century was spent in finding answers to the resulting new economic and social questions presented.

The Two Traditions

Two developments in particular, although there were many others, seem worthy of note. The more obvious one was the new economy and its appetite for better, or differently, educated and trained workforce. The less obvious, but more significant development, was the result of the Industrial Revolution permitting human kind for the first time to escape from a world of limited productive power. The Industrial Revolution permitted the invention of 'rising expectations' for virtually all citizens. It is significant that the Industrial Revolution's leadership came from outside the world of the traditional elites as it politicised the masses and inevitably undermined much of their power. Rising expectations, typified by the Victorian belief that everything was possible, gave the work class (itself a nineteenth Century creation) greater economic appetites and political and social ambitions.

During the first quarter of the nineteenth Century the conviction grew that with increasing industrialisation there was a need for workers, variously described as mechanics or artisans, to have a knowledge of science which would be related to industrial practice. In the public mind technical education thereby became associated with the artisan. On the other hand the philosophy of middle-class education was firmly based on the principles of the Christian religion and on a knowledge of the classics. Training of the mind and the formation of 'character' were paramount objectives.

New Society Outcomes

The 1820s, at the time the term 'Industrial Revolution' was first being used in France and Britain, one of the symbols of the adult education response to the new society was launched. In 1821 the Edinburgh School of Arts was founded. Kelly points out that 'The Mechanics' Institute movement had its forerunners in the various working man's libraries, book clubs, and mutual improvement societies which have their beginnings...in the eighteenth century'. Particularly in England the programme of lectures initially favoured by the Mechanics' Institutes was pitched at a level beyond artisans struggling with problems of basic education. The successful institutions either made substantial provision for literacy and numeracy classes or settled for a more middle-class audience. But the Mechanics' Institutes were only the most visible of the educational responses to the nineteenth century's developments. The working class saw a technology providing for the first time relatively cheap reading material, with the resulting vehicles for distribution such as the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, the rapid development of local libraries, museums and other resource centres like art galleries. Although institutions were usually financed by the middle or upper class patrons, who were often anxious about political control, their numbers were impressive and their variety extensive. It might be difficult for an artisan to find a place to discuss political or religious issues or a library full of popular novels, but even middle-class agencies like the literary and philosophical societies had full-time posts (secretary or curator) for aspiring working class scholars, and would open their collections at certain times of the year for all citizens.

A Canadian Perspective

Much research into Independent, Autonomous, or Self-Directed Learning has focused on middle class adults and a contemporary background of institutionally sponsored formal alternatives. This research has explored Independent Study among early skilled workers in Canada (British North America), when such alternatives were limited. While recognizing such components as the ability to establish objectives, decide upon methods, and set criteria, the focus of the research was on the autonomy of the learners and their ability to obtain appropriate learning resources.

Being often the product of the apprenticeship system in Britain, these learners had inherited a tradition of artisan culture which valued independent study. This was encouraged both by the rising expectations flowing from the Industrial Revolution and by the evident opportunities for social and economic advance in the New World. To such folk heroes as Benjamin Franklin or James Watt was soon added a number of Canadians strongly committed to an advocacy of independent study, and of self-improvement generally. The careers of two such influential people, whose success seemed to epitomise the merits of study, were examined - Joseph Howe of Halifax, Nova Scotia, and William Lyon Mackenzie of York (Toronto), Upper Canada. Here such advocacy was integrated into an essentially middle class promotion of social and political emancipation, complemented by a preoccupation with 'Useful Knowledge'. To this advocacy was added strong denunciation of nonparticipants for indifference or idleness.

The early development of readily accessible museums and libraries was explored, with a view to identifying their potential as learning resource centers. Many such museums were found to have collections of an amorphous and amateur character, which gave them only a transient popularity for occasional visitors. The undoubted enthusiasm of many specimen collectors was seldom translated into a rigorous selection and scientific arrangement of exhibits.

Early libraries were constrained by a relative scarcity of often expensive imported materials and by a Useful Knowledge Philosophy inhibiting the acquisition of controversial political and religious materials and of works of fiction. The supervisory and often onerous administrative demands placed on the amateur and frequently volunteer librarians left them ill-suited to an effective role as a readers' advisor - a role on which even current public librarians have mixed feelings. Controversy arose when reading interests increased in the limited holdings in the more discursive areas, and decreased in the scientific, technical and reference areas which had traditionally shaped acquisitions policy. Such policy, while modified gradually and then with misgivings, clearly had the potential to curtail the autonomy of the independent learner.

Conscious of prevailing paternalism, many skilled workers came to reject the community of interests proclaimed by liberal reformers. Critical reflection on their status led to a study of alternative figures and the adoption of contrary political and economic views. Such transformation was often inhibited by the formal educational provision of mechanics' institutes and manipulated by the arbitrary actions of some employers. The transformation was facilitated by a growing associational life in clubs, friendly societies, taverns, and, for some, local craft unions.

This strand of independent learning indeed survived but it was under continual siege.

[1] Dalhousie University [2] University of Nottingham

[3] Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

THE INNER CITY CONTEXT AND THE GENERATION OF CURRICULAE IN ADULT EDUCATION

Feroz Khan
Education Advice and Guidance Officer
Highfields Youth & Community Centre
Leicestershire Education Authority

The aim of this paper is to examine Curriculum Development in the Inner City for Adult Learners.

The Inner City; "Highfields is an area of multi-ethnic, multi-linguistic and multi-cultural people; with its myriad of issues, patterns of lives, rich cultural traditions with a variety of talents but economically and socially deprived". (F.Khan, Education and Training For All: - 1987).

It is in this context with a background of traditional Adult Education practices having "a poor record of provision" (FEU, March 1984) that the "Mini United Nations" in our Inner Cities are making a break through in challenging for changes in alternative Curriculae for Adults.

The post war period not only saw the dismantling of the British Empire but also started a movement of peoples from the Old Colonies to "Mother England" that has altered the face of British Urban Culture and Society.

The boom years of the post war period saw the import of unskilled and semi-skilled Indians, Pakistanis, Afro-Caribbeans and Bangladeshis to take on the jobs that the white working class no longer wanted to do (Gilroy, Empire Strikes Back).

The result of this immigration of citizens from the New Commonwealth into the urban industrial belts of Britain has not only enriched the Inner Cities culturally but the lack of development and planning and in a lot of cases inappropriate planning and development, has resulted in multiple deprivations and unemployment as the post War boom declined.

In 1984, the unemployment rate in the white population was twelve per cent for males and ten per cent for females, whilst for West Indians it was twenty eight per cent and eighteen per cent and for Indians, Pakistanis and Bangladeshis twenty two per cent for males and females respectively. Thus the figures for the non white adults being twice that of the white population (MSC, Labour Quarterly, Sept. 1984).

In some Inner City areas, such as parts of Yorkshire and Humberside, the unemployment rate amongst Indians, Pakistanis and Bangladeshis was thirty per cent. (Labour Force Survey 1981).

For the majority of ethnic minorities finding employment has become an academic question since the decline in un-skilled and semi-skilled work became total in some areas such as Yorkshire with the closure of cotton mills. However, racial discrimination became the single most important barrier for the Ethnic Communities in the job market. It is against this background that the lack of Education and training provision for ethnic minorities took on a high profile (Rampton/Swann).

The House of Lords Select Committee on Unemployment drew attention to this issue: "obvious disadvantages in the Labour Market which first generation immigrants suffer are the low level of their educational and job qualifications, compared with whites and in the case of Asians, languages and cultural differences". (A. Charnley, V.K. McGivency, D.J. Sims).

In examining Adult Education Curriculum development in the Inner City, one cannot ignore achievements in pre-Sixteen education. Since 1981 (Scarman Report), the failure of formal education providers in the Secondary and Primary sectors has resulted in large numbers of young ethnic minority adults leaving school with little or no qualifications (Swann). We thus have a system of formal pre-Sixteen education that is geared to failure from the outset. In specific ethnic communities, the failure level at Sixteen is extremely high (Bangladeshis in Britain, House of Commons Report, 1986).

The Inner London Education Authority, the largest in the country, stated that in 1985, Bengali children comprised the largest single linguistic minority in Inner London - twenty two per cent of all pupils whose first language was not English. A sample of school leavers of Asian origins showed exam success between seventy six to ninety one per cent while Bangladeshi childrens rate was only twenty one per cent. (Bangladeshis in Britain, House of Commons Report, 1986).

Similarly, the Further Education Colleges and Adult Education Centres have failed to provide appropriate educational curriculae and opportunities for the ethnic minorities. In the main, Adult Education work has concentrated on community development work with white working class adults and paying little or no attention to the ethnic minorities, racism or gender issues. (Lovett et al). Adult Education institutions responded to this need (ACACE 1982) in a very limited way by providing English as a Second Language (ESL) classes. Furthermore, providers took a "monolithic" view of the needs of ethnic minorities and that "many practitioners took a blanket approach in lieu of consulting members and representatives of the minority Communities" (ACACE 1982).

Good practices in curriculae generation have taken place only through consumer demand led and negotiated with provider institutions, authorities, Voluntary Sector and validating agencies. Such a development took place in Leicester at Highfields Youth and Community Centre, for the "Foundation Certificate in Multicultural Fashion for Women".

One may ask the question why is this course not taking place in a Further Education College since that is the type of institution specifically set up for vocational training and qualifications?
In the first place, the local F.E. Colleges are not located within the Communities. In this instance, research has shown that existing F.E. provision in Fashion and Design is based on an old system of entry requirements, tutors were all white, the ambience of the college was not suitable to the local communities, students needed to catch two buses to reach the College from the area where consumers reside, and costs for existing courses were too high. The syllabus of the Course in question was inappropriate to consumer needs and requirements, there was no creche provision and the timing of the course was found to be inappropriate. There was no ESL provision at the College or on the Course. Since a large proportion of the women were unemployed mothers (and in some case the husbands were also unemployed), they needed to go to local schools to collect their children or take them there. Therefore, they could not take a course on a full time basis or on a full day or two.

Appropriate access to education and learning became a primary question for the tutors on the above course which the Government also identified as a priority in the work of the Man power Services Commission and in the DES White Paper on Higher Education (UDACE Working Together - 1988).

In devloping curriculae in the Inner City, a major distinction is the need for flexibility such as the entry requirements which must be negotiated with each student and which allows for their previous social and life experiences to be credited (FEU statement on the provision of Education and Training for Adults, March 1984).

The negotiation of times and days when the course takes place is another major distinction from formal and traditional courses for Adults. In the Fashion Course, classes take place at four different times of the working week and students have to attend for three and half hours per week out of a total of eight hours. The students can work at their own pace or spend more time on a particular module. This timing arrangement also allows provision for illness, and holidays and religious occassions like Ramadan (Islamic fasting period). In most inner city, areas one finds families who take leave to visit relations in places such as South Asia. There is a tendency to stay longer than intended because of the costs of such visits are so high and that families can only afford to go on such visits once in approximately ten years.

In developing the Curriculum, the staffing for this course became a crucial issue. The consumers are mainly Asian and Afro-Caribbean and in most cases their own ability to communicate in English is limited. The Course finally developed with the appointment of an Asian tutor who speaks two appropriate languages, one white tutor who has been teaching in the area for a long time and additionally an Afro-Caribbean tutor. Similarly, other tutors were taken on for particular topics such as embroidery and batik printing.

The Fashion Course is accredited by the East Midlands Further Educational Council and the external assessor was also negotiated from another County. In the assessment of the students work, there are no examinations. Assessment is continuous and is based on production of set pieces of work, attendance, motivation, originality and marketability.

In writing up their work, students on the Fashion Course are given the choice of either using English or their mother tongue and provision has been made for the appropriate language examiner to undertake the necessary assessment.

One major advantage of this course is that there are two avenues for progression. These are Industry and Further/Higher education. This is an essential element to any successful development, particularly within the inner city context. The last decade has evidenced a plethora of projects (funded mainly through the Inner Area Partnership Programme), all striving to put on provisions of various kinds for Adults in the Community. The reality, however, has been one of underfunded, understaffed, underequipped, ad-hoc provisions engaged in doing something for the sake of doing something. To break out of this vicious cycle, it is essential that course participants have set before them very clear aims and objectives and routes for moving on in their own personal, educational and career developments. The Multi-Cultural Fashion course was set up with these clear aims and objectives and offers students the very real possibility of moving on to either the B.T.E.C. Fashion course or the Polytechnic Foundation course. It also offers the students, an opportunity to gain employment in the Fashion Industry.

In the field of alternative curriculae developments and learning, if appropriate negotiations are not continuous from the outset of the Course, serious problems could arise at any one of several points in it's development (Nottingham Access Forum).

In the absence of appropriate curriculae developments within the main stream F.E. provision, it has befallen on us to initiate and develop this course. This does not absolve main stream providers from engaging in this area of work. Indeed, we have been able to identify specific F.E. College specialists who have been supportive in a consultancy role. The task is to extend this contact into a more fully fledged and on going partnership (FEU statement on the provision of education and Training for Adults, March 1984 and UDACE - Working Together, 1988).

In conclusion, setting new curriculae may be considered as the initial breakthrough. The continuation of practices as identified above will be an essential part of the process. Critically, however, the most important ingredient will be a regular monitoring and evaluation of such provision which involves the students and providers.

SWEDISH SNAPS AND CANADIAN CIDER: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE MEANINGS OF ADULT EDUCATION

Staffan Larsson, University of Göteborg, Sweden
Joyce Stalker Costin, University of British Columbia, Canada

ABSTRACT

This paper compares the views about the meanings of adult education held by Canadian and Swedish workers. It suggests that those meanings are influenced by both the workers' educational levels and the content of the adult education activities in which they participated.

INTRODUCTION

This paper reports two studies that share a common theme. One was undertaken in Sweden, the other in Canada. Each study involved qualitative techniques to examine workers' conceptions of the usefulness of education. The paper offers a comparative review of the findings from these studies.

At first glance, such a comparison is a little like comparing snaps and cider; both possess unique and distinctive characteristics, are part of the different cultural milieus from which they originate and yet are similar in both obvious and subtle ways. For example, the examination of these studies appears to be complicated by their several contextual differences. At the level of the workplace context, the workers in Larsson's study were store workers and in Stalker Costin's work were several classification of employees within a large department of a municipality. At a more abstract level, the different Swedish and Canadian cultural, economic, social and historical milieus have resulted in unique adult education situations which one might expect could influence the meanings that adults attach to the notion of adult education. For example, in Sweden, over one third of the population pursues studies in adult education (Swedish Institute, 1982). Since 1968, there has been a state-run system of adult education and more than one tenth of the national outlay on education goes to various kinds of adult education such as voluntary educational associations, municipal education, basic education, labor market training and correspondence schools. In Canada, on the other hand, statistics reveal that one in five participate in adult education activities (Statistics Canada, 1985). There is neither a national system of adult education nor specific funds allocated on an on-going basis to adult education. Adult education is a provincial responsibility which is divided among diverse and unco-ordinated ministries.

These two studies *do* share some important similarities however. Fundamentally, they both inquired into the meanings workers' attach to adult education. They shared the phenomenographic (Marton, 1981) research perspective and sought the workers' conceptions of adult education. Indeed the notion of conceptions provides the basic argument for the comparability of these studies since conceptions are not necessarily based in individual characteristics nor are they reflections of environmental qualities per se (Marton, 1984). Rather, conceptions establish the abstract space of categories of description within which individuals move back and forth. Phenomenography concerns itself not with how the world is, but how it appears to those within it. In this regard, conceptions are decontextualized and an examination of the conceptions of the two studies is conducted outside the similarities and dissimilarities of the research subjects and settings.

OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH PROJECTS

STUDY 1: Sweden (Larsson)

Staffan Larsson conducted a study published in 1986 in Sweden that was designed to inquire into the deeper layers of unskilled workers' relation to [adult] education. The original project interviewed a total of 194 workers from five different areas: dairy workers, storemen, unskilled mechanics, auxiliary nurses and textile workers. Although the original research project explored several aspects of the workers' situations, this paper deals only with the views of education held by 41 store workers. Descriptive materials concerning their workplaces were also collected. A qualitative approach, aimed at describing the workers' different ways of conceiving education was used.

RESULTS

Two different views were described; one was task oriented in nature and one was more general.

Conception A: task oriented.
One conception of education held by all 41 of the workers was the task oriented view. Workers subscribing to this view saw education as useful to the performance of certain tasks in their work or in their union. Those with this conception understood that there were concrete relationships between education and the tasks that they thought education enabled them to do. Education was seen to be instrumental for the achievement of very specific aims.

Conception B: General.
The second view held by 11 of the store workers was a general view that suggested that education develops people as human beings. This was not so much a view of a quantitative growth of knowledge but rather one of change in people's ways of thinking, ways of behaving or ways of relating to the world around them. Within this view one can identify instances when the workers referred to cognitive development in a general way: "One gets a broader perspective" or, "It's easier to see how things relate to each other." A second kind of general view of education referred to education as social development. For example, the workers said that education resulted in "stronger self-confidence", "self-assertiveness" and "changed relationships with other people." A third dimension of this general way of viewing education also existed. Workers with this dimension regarded education as having political value. They suggested that a knowledge of history gives a perspective on current political events.

It is important to note that a worker could hold simultaneously both task oriented and general views of education. The former view can be termed a "base-line" view to which, in some cases, the general impact view is added. The kind of general impact view acquired can be cognitive, social or political in nature. The data showed that among the interviewed storemen the distribution of the two perspectives on education was as follows: 30 held only a task oriented view and 11 held both a general and task oriented view.

It is also interesting to examine the differences in views of education held by workers with different amounts of education. Even though no more than the compulsory nine-year level of education was required in the workplace, the workers had different amounts of education. As the following table reveals, those with higher education levels tended to hold the more general view of education while those with less years of education held the more task oriented view.

Table 1

Length of education in years

VIEW OF EDUCATION	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	MEDIAN
Task oriented	9.2	1.4	9.0
General	11.9	2.5	12.0
(Total N=41)			

STUDY 2: Canada (Stalker Costin)

In Canada, in 1988, Joyce Stalker Costin interviewed twenty (20) workers within one department of a large municipality in British Columbia about their conceptions of the usefulness of adult education activities. The workers were from a group identified as 'typically' non-participants--those who had attained a high school diploma or less. Respondents classified themselves into the categories of participant or non-participant according to whether or not they had participated in adult education activities within the last year. Half the workers were male, and half were female. A qualitative approach similar to that used in the Swedish study was employed with the aim of describing the workers' different ways of viewing the usefulness of adult education.

RESULTS

In this study, four different conceptions were described:

Conception I: Participation in adult education activities are to acquire credibility in the workplace.
Workers viewed participation in adult education activities as useful in acquiring credibility to meet both explicit and implicit requirements in the workplace. In the first instance, participation satisfied stated educational criteria which were needed to compete for positions in the workplace. In the second instance, it represented positive

characteristics to supervisors and personnel officers. It served as a testimonial to the workers' "initiative" and their interest in making "an effort."

Conception II: The skills, information and knowledge acquired through participation are useful in their practical application.
Workers viewed participation as useful to acquire skills, information and knowledge that could be put to practical use. There was a straightforward connection between taking courses and their application.

Conception III: Through participation in adult education activities, one acquires a personal possession.
Some workers viewed the consequences of participation in adult education activities as useful assets, forms of personal property or wealth. These were possessions which could not be expropriated by others, and which demonstrated the workers' mastery over difficult situations. This view went beyond the notion of personal growth and suggested control, command and power over situations.

Conception IV: Participation in adult education activities is useful to allocate status.
Some workers viewed participation in adult education as a means to acquire status, prestige and social standing. Participation differentiated between groups of adults and established a hierarchical relationship between social groups.

In this study, it was not possible to examine the differences in views of education held by workers with different amounts of education since all of the ten women had attained their high school diplomas and all of the ten men had educational levels that fell within a narrow range of two years.

DISCUSSION

It is possible to summarize the findings from the two studies in the table below:

Table 2

Workers' conceptions of adult education

LARSSON (1986)	STALKER COSTIN (1988)
Conception A:	*Conception I:*
Task oriented	Credibility in the workplace
	Conception II:
	Practical application
Conception B:	*Conception III:*
General	Personal possession
cognitive development	*Conception IV:*
social development	Allocation of status
political development	

Comparisons between the two studies can be made at both the general and more specific levels. At a general level, it is clear that workers held multiple views of the meanings of adult education and that these views were not mutually exclusive. As well, views were both congruent and incongruent with the stated intentions of the designer or provider. In some cases, workers' views matched the simple, direct and official explanations of the aims, purposes and goals of courses. In other cases, the workers' conceptions of adult education activities differed from their officially promoted functions. Thus some attended computer courses to learn how to use computers while others enrolled to acquire status.

If one examines closely the more specific conceptions in each study, additional parallels can be found. On the one hand, Larsson's task oriented conception appears to subsume all of Stalker Costin's conceptions, since their conception emphasizes the instrumental usefulness of adult education and implicit in Stalker Costin's conceptions is the view that adult education is seen as a means to an end. On closer examination, however, the task-oriented nature of Larsson's Conception A appears to relate more closely with Stalker Costin's Conceptions I and II which suggest that adult education is useful to gain credibility in the workplace and to acquire skills, information and knowledge that are useful in their practical application. These two conceptions deal closely with the explicit instrumentality of participation in adult education. Larsson's Conception A and Stalker Costin's Conception I and II are congruent in their representation of adult education in pragmatic, concrete ways. An interesting discrepancy between these conceptions does exist, however. In the Swedish study, Larsson found that the workers' related the instrumentality of adult education to tasks in their unions, but Stalker Costin's Canadian workers made no reference to this, although all the workers interviewed were union members.

Larsson's Conception B also finds parallels in Stalker Costin's work. The view that adult education is useful in more abstract, general ways, bears a resemblance to the views that participation is useful in symbolic, more abstract ways. Larsson's second dimension within the general view, social development, is particularly congruent with Conceptions II and IV. There, notions like 'education results in changed relationships and stronger self-confidence' find potential parallels in the views that education is useful as a personal possession or for allocation of status.

Larsson's data as presented in Table 1 suggests that there may be some correlation between the development of the conceptions held by workers and the workers' length of engagement with the educational system. Larsson argues that education broadens the workers' views by adding new, more general ones to the 'base-line' task oriented ones. As the table shows, those who held a task oriented view of education had 9 years (md) of education, those with a general view of education had 12 years (md) of education. Because of the narrow educational range of respondents in Stalker Costin's study, it was not possible to compare the views of those with different educational levels. It is interesting to note, however, that her respondents who had 12 years (md) in the educational system, did hold views that were similar to both the general and task oriented views held by Larsson's group with the higher level of education. Although this finding cannot fully support the contention that task oriented views are base-line views that are supplemented by general views among those with higher education, it is certainly suggestive of it.

According to Larsson, the particular kind of general view that is acquired through education is dependent upon the content of the education that is experienced. The work of Holmer (1987) supports this kind of hypothesis. Holmer examined the views of education held by 29 blue and white-collar Swedish workers in a car factory. These workers were primarily union workers and he examined their views before and after their participation in a course. In this study, the workers' views of education could be described dichotomously as "technological" and "ideological." "Technological" then infers that education was useful in task-oriented ways. The term "ideological" then refers to notions which suggested that "the studies gave a perspective on society and life." Holmer found that at the beginning of the course 10% of the workers held the ideological view and 50% held the technological view of education. At the course's conclusion, this distribution was reversed. Holmer suggested that the reversal was related to the ideological nature of the courses' content.

SUMMARY

In summary, although it is possible to suggest that workers in both Sweden and Canada shared some common sense understandings of the meanings of adult education, several issues remain unresolved and await further research. For example, it is unclear to what extent the discrepancies between the conceptions in the two studies are the result of different levels of analysis of the data or of the differing cultural, economic, social and historical mileus of the two countries in forming those conceptions. As well, the argument that the content of education can alter workers' conceptions is suggestive of a role for adult education in which it develops its potential as a social and cultural force. Research in these areas has the potential to provide insights into both understanding and developing the role of adult education. This ambitious goal will be better met, however, when comparative studies occur less by happenstance and more by close and on-going cooperation throughout every stage of the research process. To conduct such collaborative research may well be both the challenge and the promise of the future for adult educators.

REFERENCES

Holmer, J. (1987). Hogre utbildning för lagutbildade i industrin. (The Swedish university provision for further education for blue and white collar industrial workers.)

Larsson, S. et al.(1986). Arbetsupplevelse och utbildningssyn hos icke facklörda. (The meaning of work and of education among unskilled workers.) Göteborg: Acta Universitatis Göthoburgensis.

Marton, F. (1981). Phenomenography-describing conceptions of the world around us. Instructional Science, 10, 177-200.

Marton, F. (1984). Towards a psychology beyond the individual. In K. M. J. Lagerspetz and P. Niemi (Eds.), Psychology in the 1990's (pp. 45-67). North Holland: Elsevier Science Publishers.

Stalker Costin, J. (1988, in press). Conceptions of the usefulness of participation in adult education activities: From the inside looking out. Proceedings of the 29th Annual Adult Education Research Conference, Calgary, Alberta.

Statistics Canada, (1985). One in every five. A survey of adult education in Canada. Ottawa: Minister of Supply and Services, Canada.

Swedish Institute, (1982, December). Fact sheets on Sweden: Adult education in Sweden. Stockholm: Swedish Institute.

ANDRAGOGY: THE RETURN OF THE JEDI

Michael Law, University of Waikato, New Zealand, and University of British Columbia, Canada.
Kjell Rubenson, University of Linkoping, Sweden, and University of British Columbia, Canada.

Abstract

Adult education's claim to a distinctive status has hitherto been grounded in the psychological assumptions of andragogy. Ideas derived from Marx as refined and developed by contemporary social theorists offer a sounder and more humanistic basis for emphasizing the uniqueness of adult education.

Introduction

Vico (1668-1744) is usually credited with first formulating the view that as the world of civil society is a human creation, people can aspire to know it. Marx gave this idea a new twist. People "make history", he argued, but not in an unfettered way; they acquire knowledge, develop ideas, make decisions and take action "under circumstances" -themselves human creations- which are "directly found, given and transmitted from the past." This paper explores the possibilities embedded within Marx's ideas as the basis for relocating the distinctive, unique character of adult education within a social, rather than a psychological, theoretical framework.

Malcolm Knowles' *The modern practice of adult education* captured a sentiment that emerged within American adult education in the late 1950s and early 1960s and which came to frame much of the subsequent debate about the field's claim to a distinctive status. His concept of 'andragogy' centred the identity of adult education on the discrete characteristics of adults as learners and thereby focussed attention almost exclusively on psychological and developmental considerations. Knowles' model has never been accepted uncritically, nevertheless, as Darkenwald and Merriam (1982, p. 11) observe, "there seems to be increasing agreement that the maturity of the adult learner and the needs and problems of adulthood are what give adult education its special quality." According to Jarvis (1984), andragogical assumptions inform many adult educators' views of the adult learner.

The reasons for the predominance of the psychological conceptual framework have to be located within American social and economic culture. Until the early 1950s, mainstream American adult education retained at least the residue of a social movement impulse. But during that decade, the era of the 'affluent society', mainstream adult education shifted its constituency. It relocated itself socially and culturally. From the mid-1950s the inexorable trend was towards 'professionalization'; this accelerated the development of graduate programmes and created a need to formulate the contours and character of an 'emerging field of study'. In many ways, the dominant individualistic strain of liberal philosophy that informed much of the early thinking in the field, the Thorndike studies and the first academic programmes had all prepared adult education for the adoption of a mix of Tylerist programme planning strategies and a 'philosophy' of practice that revered the assumptions of 'third force' humanist psychology. As the social context came to be accepted uncritically, the goal of research and theory was defined in terms of servicing practice (Rubenson, 1982); practice that emphasized individuals and their 'needs'. Thus 'needs', the driving force in mainstream education 'theory', came to be defined solely in terms of the individual learner with the focus on psychological 'needs' that resulted from an adult development trajectory, competencies required for fulfilling social roles, and the satisfaction of individual cultural interests

(Law and Sissons, 1985). The notion of andragogy nestles comfortably within this environment.

Since the demise of Lindeman's, and, later, Liveright's influence, mainstream American adult education theory has, by and large, turned away from social theories that critique the social order. Instead, in so far as there has been any interest in sociology, the field has flirted mainly with symbolic interactionism. Even Mezirow (1969), one of the few American writers to attempt to engage critical social theory, incorporates symbolic interactionism into his call for a "theory of practice" and his subsequent work on 'perspective taking' and 'perspective transformation' (Collard and Law, 1987). The appeal of interactionism is consistent with trends sketched earlier, although embedded within this approach are problematic areas that reflect "the liberal-conservative bind entailed by arguing the virtues of active, creative individuality and of secure, stable association" (Fisher and Strauss, 1978, p. 488).

Problem and purpose of paper

How then can a case for the distinctiveness of adult education be mounted without recourse to the characteristics and individual 'needs' of the adult learner occupying centre stage? Along with Giddens (1984), we hold that in order to come to terms with Marx's aphorism that people make history we need to formulate a coherent account of social change that acknowledges both agency and structure. Recent work by each of us has been designed to develop an argument for the uniqueness of adult education that is grounded in social and political thought rather than psychological theory. In part this aim is redemptive in that it seeks to reintroduce into adult education theory ideas derived from Marx; but it is also explorative in that the research is concerned not with exhuming buried ideas, but at examing the ways these ideas inform and are developed in contemporary social theory. The immediate purpose of this paper is to introduce some of that contemporary thinking in order to undergird our general argument for adult education theory and research to be located in the sociological domain rather than the psychological.

Theoretical and methodological considerations

A critical adult education theory has social transformation as an implicit aim. Traditionally, ideas about human agency and structure and the interaction between the two have defined the boundaries of political action and, flowing from that, the nature and scope of adult education for social transformation. A core problem in contemporary radical education is the present crisis within social theory with respect to theories of social transformation. Thompson (1978, p. 281) suggests that three kinds of socialist transition can be envisaged: (1) "the syndicalist revolution"; (2) "the more or less constitutional party based on the class institutions, with a very clearly articulated socialist strategy" that creates a revolutionary situation through cumulative reforms that "bring the country to a critical point of class equilibrium"; (3) the creation of new institutions and value systems resulting from "far-reaching changes in the sociological composition of the groups making up the historical class." At the present time, most theorists in advanced capitalist countries are working within frameworks that resemble either the third of these approaches or some combination of the second and the third.

A theory of transition, however, is not sufficient for a fully developed theory of transformative adult education. Fay (1987, p. 31) holds that a fully developed critical science "must consist of a *complex of theories* which are systematically related to one another." He suggests a "basic scheme" consisting of four principal theories -(1) of false consciousness; (2) of crisis; (3) of education; and (4) of transformative action- and ten sub-theories that are located under these four main headings. This scheme addresses issues of agency and structure concurrently. As a method of analysing theoretical fragments within adult education writings it can suggest gaps and inadequacies; as a guide to the engagement of social theories, it facilitates the identification of explicit and implicit educational elements and suggests ways in which these can be integrated into adult education theory.

Insights from social theory: Some observations

Keeping in mind Thompson's three approaches to socialist transition, we cluster here insights from contemporary social theory that help flesh out Fay's basic scheme. We believe that these observation can form the basis of an alternative, sounder theory of adult education than that based solely on andragogical assumptions.

The human agent

In his *Theses on Feurbach* and in his collaborative work with Engels, *The German ideology*, Marx presented his views on the relationship between consciousness and material conditions. Members of the 'Budapest School' associated with the later Lukacs offer very helpful insights into Marx's break with materialist naturalism. Markus (1978) emphasizes Marx's interest in humankind's socio-historical development. Humans are social beings; social in two senses. First, being human can only be achieved and sustained through contact with other human beings. Second, each individual "appropriates, incorporates into [its] life and activity (to a larger or lesser extent) abilities, wants, forms of behaviour, ideas etc, which were created and objectified by other individuals of earlier generations or those contemporary to him [or her]" (p. 16). Heller's (1974/1976) exploration of the socio-historical creation of needs and the ways in which an individual's needs are related to social conditions develops further Markus' work. In this and other writings she opens up a variety of ways of thinking about humans as *natural social beings* (Law and Sissons, 1985). This approach has enormous advantages over the andragogical in that it reintegrates into the whole nexus of social relations the individual whom third force psychology seeks to abstract and isolate. While individual needs, as reconceptualized, remain important, the primary focus of attention shifts to an analysis of the social construction of norms, values and meanings and how and in whose interest these are constructed. Issues of power become more central and more urgent thereby rendering naive if not redundant the language of 'self-direction' that permeates so much of the adult education literature.

The creation of values and meanings

During the late 1960s and 1970s, radical educators discovered and appropriated Gramsci's writings. A crucial point in his argument is that cultural predominance must be distinguished from political power. His notion of hegemony refers to the ways in which the values and meanings of dominant groups penetrate the consciousness of subordinate groups and are accepted by them. Contemporary cultural theory offers new ways to explore and develop these ideas. Whereas orthodox Marxism employs 'class' and 'class consciousness' as organizing concepts, in cultural theory, especially that associated with Williams, a reconceptualized concept of 'culture' replaces 'consciousness' or forces "a reworking of its meaning;" both terms, however, are still "closely coupled to 'class'" (Johnson, 1980, p. 201). Against a materialist backdrop that retains much of his vision of a 'long revolution', Williams (1977) writes of the two effects of the continual transformation of values and meanings. The first is to entrench the cultural power of dominant groups: an idea that resembles Gramsci's notion of hegemony; the second is to create the basis for oppositional or counter-hegemonic cultural work.

Williams identifies three cultural elements: the 'dominant', the 'residual' and the 'emergent'. The dominant are relatively self-explanatory; the residual are those "formed in the past, but [which are] still active in the cultural process, not only and often as an element of the past, but as an effective element in the present" (p. 123); the emergent are those new values and meanings that are being constantly created, both by dominant and subordinate groups. Both the residual and the emergent are, therefore, defined in terms of the dominant. But they also help us understand the character and the limitations of the dominant for, as Williams notes, "*no mode of production and therefore no dominant social order and therefore no dominant culture ever in reality includes or exhausts all human practice, human agency, and human intention*" [original emphasis] (p. 125). This identifies the cultural spaces within which counter-hegemonic adult education can be undertaken.

Sites of education

Budapest School writings and the ideas of Williams address the third of Thompson's three approaches to transition, the creation of new institutions and value systems. This forces a rethinking about the sites of education and learning and the emerging notion of the adult educator as some sort of 'professional' specialist. From the late 1880s, the tendency in adult education, both radical and reactionary, has been to institutionalize adult education: at the extremes, in the 'party' or in the 'school'. Yet studies of working class history, such as Thompson's (1963) classic, *The making of English working class*, highlight a process of radical educational intervention that extends much more deeply into everyday life. If we link together J. Simon's (1977) notion of education as "the mode of development of human society" and Williams' view that values and meaning are continually being created, the distinctive terrain of adult education becomes clearer.

Along with B. Simon (1984), we see education as a process that involves all the formative influences that contribute to human development: the family, the school, the church, the workplace, the union and so forth. Thus the task of the adult educator, in a very broad sense of that term, is to engage in the struggle to shape and define emergent values and meanings by harnessing the alternative and oppositional dimensions of both the residual and the emergent cultural elements. And it is in this sense that we can talk about adult education in the context of social movements. These ideas provide a theoretical basis for adult education -or, more accurately, the education of adults- to move beyond the more limited formulations of resistance and counter-hegemonic education that dominate the radical sociology of education literature, especially the American, which tends to focus, although not exclusively, on schooling (Aronowitz and Giroux, 1985).

Changing structures

As noted earlier, a recurring problem in social and political theory remains that of transition; how does oppositional and counter-hegemonic education contribute to structural change? It is this problem that keeps tugging applied social theory back to some notion of a constitutional party. To date, Swedish social democracy has made the most sustained effort within advanced capitalism to pursue social transformation through a constitutional party. The essence of the Swedish approach is that immediate reforms can be situated within the context of a socialist future: "that political and then social reforms can create the conditions for economic transformation, step by step." The model of 'power mobilisation' articulated by Korpi holds that power resources seldom come from ideology, but that "political strength must grow out of reforms and full employment which will endow workers with a greater capacity for participation and solidarity." The sequence is 'political citizenship' preceding 'social citizenship' both of which are necessary for attaining 'economic citizenship' (Esping-Anderson, 1985, p. 22;

Pontusson, 1987). Most of the Swedish radical reformist adult education initiatives that have attracted international attention had their immediate genesis in what is now described as the 'socialist offensive' of 1967-1976. Adult education was seen and continues to be seen as the key to developing, in harmony with the cumulative reform process, each level or stage of 'citizenship' (Hoghielm and Rubenson, 1980).

This model links macro and micro change; at the local level, workers are encouraged to democratize the workplace. Despite the post-1976 retreat from substantial societal change, local initiatives continue to demonstrate a degree of success; in part, of course, because of societal developments during the more radical period. Svensson (1985) reports on the reorganization of a worksite. He shows how over a period of time a spiralling process of solidarity and increased critical insight developed through study circle activity. Within the study circle there was an interplay between material on industrial democracy and the workers' own experiences; out of this alternatives were developed and presented, through the union, to the employer. The structural changes that resulted are, however, only part of the story; these changes also affected the workers' personalities in that there was an increased sense of agency: their values, expectations and demands were higher, and their class awareness and sense of solidarity with the working class was greater. Whether or not these structural and personality changes can be maintained or developed further in a generally less accommodating social and political climate is a matter for further investigation. Nevertheless, the Svensson study does indicate some of the possibilities for radical reformist adult education at one of the most important sites of formative influence, the workplace.

Implications and conclusion

Although in this paper we have merely sketched some of the insights gleaned from contemporary social theory, we have shown that a sociologically grounded adult education theory opens up ways of thinking about both the individual and society that in the andragogical model are eclipsed by psychologism. In effect, the sociological approach we outline *rehumanizes* adult education theory.

While much more work needs to be done on transition theory -on the role of social movements and the role of a party and the relationship between the two- the problem of transition remains a starting point for the development of a more comprehensive theory of the education of adults. Thinking actively about transition lifts the education of adults beyond localized, oppositional activity that focusses on only immediate gains and concessions or which speaks to some vague notion of building a (the) social movement. Both are important, but they are theoretically inadequate. For this reason, we see value in continuing to explore Thompson's notion of some mix of his suggested second and third paths to transition.

The uniqueness of adult education is to be found not in the head, but in society; for what is in the head is an appropriation of the norms, values and meanings that are constantly being created by real men and women living their everyday lives "under circumstances."

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aronowitz, S. & Giroux, H. Education under siege. South Hadley: Bergin and Garvey.

Collard, S. & Law, M. G. Perspective transformation: A critical theory or the dissolution of praxis? In Proceedings of the Adult Education research Conference (pp. 43-48). Laramie: A.E.R.C.

Darkenwald, G. G. & Merriam, S. B. (1982). Adult education: Foundations of practice. New York: Harper and Row.

Esping-Anderson, G. (1985). Politics against markets Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Fay, B. (1987). Critical social science. Ithaca: Cornell University Press.

Fisher, B. G. & Strauss, A. (1978). Interactionism. In T Bottomore & R. Nisbet (Eds.). A history of sociological analysis (pp. 457-498). New York: Basic Books.

Giddens, A. (1984). The constitution of society. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Heller, A. (1976). The theory of need in Marx. London: Alison & Busby. (Original work published 1974).

Hoghielm, R. & Rubenson, K. (Eds.). (1980). Adult education for social change: Research on the Swedish allocation policy Lund: GWK Gleerup.

Jarvis, P. (1984). Andragogy--a sign of the times. Studies in the Education of Adults, 16 32-38.

Johnson, R. (1980). Three problematics: elements of a theory of working-class culture. In J. Clarke, C. Critcher & R. Johnson (Eds.). Working class culture. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Law, M. G. & Sissons, L. E. (1985). The individual, human needs and social change: Towards a reconceptualization. In R. Hoghielm (Ed.). Rekindling commitment in adult education. Stockholm: Stockholm Institute of Education.

London, J. (1964). The relevance of the study of sociology to adult education practice. In G. Jensen, A. A. Liveright, & W. Hallenbeck. (Eds.). Adult education: Outlines of an emerging field of university study. Washington, DC: Adult Education Association of the U.S.A.

Markus, G. (1978). Marxism and anthropology. Assen (The Netherlands): Van Gorcum.

Mezirow, J. (1969). Toward a theory of practice in education with particular reference to the education of adults. Paper presented to Adult Education Research Conference, Minneapolis, Minnesota, (ED 036 755).

Pontusson, J. (1987). Radicalization and retreat in Swedish social democracy. New Left Review No. 165 September/October 5-33.

Rubenson, K. (1982). Adult education: In quest of a map of the territory. Adult Education, 32(2), 57-74.

Shor, I. & Freire, P. (1987). A pedagogy for liberation. South Hadley: Bergin and Garvey.

Simon, B. (1984). Can education change society? In J. D. Wilson (Ed.). An imperfect past. Vancouver: Centre for Curriculum and instruction, University of British Columbia.

Simon, J. (1977). The history of education in *Past and Present*. Oxford Review of Education, 3(1).

Svensson, L. (1985). Arbetar kolektivet och facket [The worker collective and the union]. Lund: Lund University.

Thompson, E. P. (1963/1968). The making of the English working class. Hammondsworth: Penguin.

Thompson, E. P. (1978). The poverty of theory and other essays. New York: Monthly Review Press.

Williams, R. (1977). Marxism and literature. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Adult Basic Education Students' Attitudes Toward Computers

Linda H. Lewis
Associate Professor
The University of Connecticut

Marcia A. Delcourt
Doctoral Candidate
The University of Connecticut

Abstract: This paper describes the research and development of an inventory to measure adults' attitudes toward computers. Designed specifically for low literate adult learners, the instrument has been piloted and administered to 646 adult basic education students across the U.S. The findings suggest that this population of undereducated adults displays generally positive attitudes toward computers and is interested in utilizing the technology as part of their educational program.

The purpose of this research was to develop an instrument to measure adults' attitudes toward computers. Given the increasing use of computers to enhance learning and facilitate instruction, adult educators, as well as students, are being afforded opportunities to work with this new medium. However, due to an absence of uniform evaluative criteria and appropriate measuring devices, research neither adequately quantifies nor qualifies individuals' attitudes regarding this technology. A review of literature on adults' attitudes toward computers revealed individual response patterns ranging from fear and uncertainty about computer use to excitement and anticipation. Thus, the impetus for undertaking this research was to develop a tool for assessing attitudes more precisely, in order to obtain a better understanding of an individual's willingness, or lack thereof, to use computers.

An attitude toward an object or an idea is a complex phenomenon. One important variable in assessing an attitude is the appropriateness of the instrument for a specific population. Given such a consideration, an initial objective in this study was to identify a population and make explicit the reasons for targeting that particular constituency. Therefore, the decision to design an instrument to assess the attitudes of low literate adult learners was three-fold. First, the use of computer-based instruction is becoming more widely employed in basic skills classes as a tool for teaching structured, drill-oriented subjects. Second, while anecdotal accounts abound, no hard data exists that addresses the willingness or reluctance of this group of learners to engage in computer use. Last, and most importantly, the high dropout rates in ABE classes require adult educators to continually seek new ways to encourage participation and increase motivation. By gaining a better understanding of the attitudes of low literate adults toward computers, informed decisions can be made as to what teaching and counseling strategies might be appropriate for facilitating computer usage.

Instrument Development

In measuring adult basic education students' attitudes toward computers, a preliminary instrument (Delcourt & Lewis, 1987) was adapted and administered to a sample of 49 subjects from the target population. This 26 item assessment consisted of the following three categories: General Interest (GI) (enthusiasm or lack of it regarding computers), Usefulness (U) (the idea that computers are helpful) and Anxiety (A) (apprehension or fear of using computers). Sample item stems from each of these categories include: "Learning about computers would be exciting for me" (GI), "Knowing how to use computers is important in today's world" (U), and "I am worried about being able to use a computer" (A). Using a 5-point Likert response format, descriptors ranged from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1).

After responding to the survey, each subject, from the pilot study, was interviewed regarding the relevance of the 26 items. Many of the ABE learners related the use of computers to past or present job situations. Neutral or negative responses were given when students could not "see themselves" working with computers. When asked about their negative attitudes, a few students mentioned that only computer specialists worked with computers.

Several subjects also reported difficulties in responding to items which dealt with the future (i.e., If I had the money, I would buy a computer). All of the item stems were then reviewed to detect any abstract or hypothetical concepts. In addition, to relate the content directly to the learner, items written in the third person were changed to the first person.

Another global revision included the elimination of the word not from all statements. While the final revision does contain three negatively worded items (i.e., The thought of using a computer frightens me.), these sentences were specifically phrased to avoid the confusion presented by double negatives.

After reviewing all items, a decision was made to rename one of the subscales from Anxiety to Comfort, reflecting a more positive view of computers. The resultant instrument contained 15 items and was entitled Adults' Attitudes Toward Computers (Adult ATC).

In its initial form, the Adult ATC described three categories of adults' attitudes toward computers: General Interest (enthusiasm or lack of it regarding computers); Usefulness (the idea that computers are helpful); and, Comfort (self-confidence in or apprehension about using computers). While the initial pilot testing of the instrument (Delcourt & Lewis, 1987) supported the presence of the aforementioned conceptual categories, repiloting of the revised survey provided another interpretation.

A sample of 646 adult basic education students enrolled in 15 basic skills programs throughout the U.S. completed the revised inventory. Students in community colleges, public adult education programs, vocational schools, and community-based programs were represented.

Interpretation of the principal component analysis (PCA) using Kaiser's criterion revealed a two component solution, referred to hereafter as factors, that accounted for 56.1 of the variation among the set of 15 items. Both the varimax and oblique rotations revealed that categories I (General Interest) and II (Usefulness) merged to form the majority of a single factor. The display of factor loadings in Table 1 indicates that all values are above the acceptable level of .40 (Gable, 1986).

Consulting Table 1, subjects' responses to items 11 and 15 correlate more highly with responses related to factor I than to factor II. This is displayed by the magnitude of the factor loadings. The researchers are confident, however, that these two items assist in defining the Comfort scale since the reliability estimate for the 5-item scale is relatively high (.80) and the factor loadings are all above .40. Additionally, these items agree with the original intent of the scale, to assess the degree of confidence or apprehension associated with using a computer.

Table 1

Factor Analysis with Both a Varimax Rotation and an Oblimin Rotation for the Adult ATC Survey

Item	Stem	Varimax Loading	Oblimin Loading
	Factor I General Interest		
13	Learning about computers would be exciting for me.	.79	.81
6	I would like to learn about computers.	.76	.77
14	I would enjoy working with a computer.	.73	.77
4	Computers are interesting.	.71	.71
10	I am curious about computers.	.62	.61
	Usefulness		
3	I think that computers will be useful to me in the future.	.73	.74
5	Computers can be used to help me do many different kinds of things.	.69	.70
8	Knowing how to use a computer is important in today's world.	.70	.67
12	Computers can be used to do things more easily.	.62	.64
1	Computers can help me to learn.	.62	.64
	Comfort		
15	I am comfortable with the idea of learning to use computers.	.68	.74
11	I am confident that I will be able to work with computers.	.64	.70
	Factor II Comfort		
2	Computers make me feel nervous.	.84	.84
7	The thought of using a computer frightens me.	.84	.85
9	I am worried about being able to use a computer.	.79	.79
11	I am confident that I will be able to work with computers.	.41	.48
15	I am comfortable with the idea of learning to use computers.	.40	.47

*Underlined item numbers reflect negatively stated stems.

The factor correlation matrix revealed that the two factors were correlated .28. Factor correlations between .30 and .40 indicate that the factors may correlate highly enough to consider merging the categories. Merging all categories would only occur if this is conceptually sound and if it is the intent of the instrument developers to form one category. In this case, a single-scale instrument would reflect General Interest in Computers or General Attitudes Toward Computers. Since this was not the original purpose of the survey and the factor correlation is acceptably low, the factors were not merged.

An internal reliability consistency estimate of .89 was found for the entire survey. Reliability estimates for each of the two derived factors were .89 (factor I-General Interest/Usefulness) and .80 (factor II-Comfort). Both the reliability estimates and the PCA, support the use of the two factor solution.

Students' Attitudes

Inspection of the mean scores of the 646 students who completed the Adult ATC indicated that students generally displayed very positive attitudes as evidenced by their mean scores on General Interest/Usefulness (4.34), Comfort (3.62), and the total inventory (4.17). These mean values originate from a 5-point response format, previously described.

To gather additional data concerning students' attitudes, the final page of the inventory included an open-ended question that asked respondents to comment upon their feelings about computers. While students were enthusiastic about using computers and perceived them to be useful, they were less certain about their own abilities to use them. Despite this concern, learners' positive attitudes are reflected in the following statements transcribed from open-ended questions asked of students:

> "Reading with the computer is like eating candy from a bowl. Reading from a book is like eating hot cereal."
> (female student, vocational program)
>
> "I feel like now I can do anything I set my mind to. Using a computer builds me up and gives me more confidence."
> (female, Literacy Volunteers of America)
>
> "It's easier to learn with the computer because it's always there, and it is a helper." (male student, community college)
>
> "It helps you to relax when you see a picture on the screen. You don't feel so pressured by all those words and terms."
> (female student, job training program)
>
> "It makes me feel important--sitting behind a big screen."
> (male student, public adult education basic skills program)
>
> "Any mistake you make is between you and the computer. I like that. (female student, community-based basic skills program)

> "Time flies when I'm on the computer. At first I was worried I wouldn't be able to do it, but now people come to me for help." (male student, community college developmental skills program)

Based on both the qualitative and quantitative responses of this population of low literate adults, individuals viewed computers as an enhancement to learning and displayed little "fear" of the technology. For a population that is traditionally characterized as having low self-esteem and a history of negative educational experience, such positive attitudes suggest that computers may indeed be a new motivator and stimulus for promoting learning, increasing self-concept, and enhancing self-efficacy. While differences in populations have not been sufficiently explored to characterize the attitudes of different groups or individuals toward computers, the Adult ATC is a positive first step toward such an exploration. Although there may well be additional correlates of computer attitudes that are as yet unidentified, adult educators now have at their disposal an instrument for assessing the attitudes of their own student populations toward computers. In turn, appropriate classroom strategies for responding to individual needs or concerns about the technology can be developed.

References

Delcourt, M. A., & Lewis, L. H. (1987). Measuring adult's attitudes towards computers: An initial investigation. Proceedings of the Lifelong Learning Research Conference (pp. 14-17). College Park, MD: The University of Maryland.

Gable, R. K. (1986). Instrument development in the affective domain. Boston, MA: Kluwer Nijoff.

Utilization of Quantitative and Qualitative Methods in Evaluating Educational Software for Use with Adult Learners

Linda H Lewis and Christine A Murphy
The University of Connecticut

Abstract This paper describes the data collection strategies employed to assess the suitability of existing educational software for use with adult learners in various basic literacy programs across the United States. Two instruments were developed to yield uniform and systematic quantitative information from adult educators and students for decision-making by the project sponsor. In addition, qualitative strategies such as open-ended questions and interviews were also conducted to enrich and validate the quantitative information. Results obtained from both qualitative and quantitative data analyses supported the usefulness of a combined approach in yielding comprehensive information for decision-makers.

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to describe the approaches and subsequent data collection strategies employed in a project designed to determine the suitability of educational courseware for adult learners. The overall objective was to ascertain whether educational courseware previously developed for, and utilized with, students in grades K-12 required modification for use with adults enrolled in various basic literacy programs. The population for this project consisted of 833 adult students and 200 adult educators from twelve different basic skills programs in six states throughout the United States. The project was sponsored by a major corporation interested in developing a new market for existing educational software.

To assist the sponsor in this evaluation project, data collection approaches were developed to yield information relating to the following questions: What courseware works, what doesn't, and what changes might be made? To address these decision questions a combined methodology was devised to include both quantitative and qualitative data collection procedures. (See Figure 1 for an overview of this process.)

Quantitative Data Collection Procedures

To insure systematic and uniform data collection across the various study sites, instrumentation was developed specifically for this project. Two instruments were designed to elicit data from both adult students (Individual Courseware Evaluation) and adult educators (Teacher Courseware Evaluation).

Development of the Teacher Courseware Evaluation Form

Development began with a comprehensive review of literature related to software evaluation in general. While there is no systematic agreement regarding the key components of such evaluation, several broad categories were identified. These categories were incorporated into Part 1 of the courseware evaluation form and included questions related to:

Content, Instructional Quality, Technical Quality, and Documentation.

For each of these four categories, individual item stems were generated. These item stems consisted of positively-worded statements reflecting some aspect of the individual category. Teachers were then requested to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement as they reviewed specific courseware. A 4-point Likert response format was employed using the following descriptors and numerical values:

(1) Strongly Disagree

(2) Disagree

(3) Agree

(4) Strongly Agree

In addition to the scaled items reflecting Content, Instructional Quality, Technical Quality, and Documentation, a section on Program Elements was also incorporated. This section focused on selected elements of the courseware determined to be especially significant for adult students and was designated as Part II. Teachers were asked to check the appropriate box to indicate whether or not these seven elements were motivating, relevant, and/or inappropriate for adults. The seven program elements were:

(1) "Real Life" Examples
(2) Graphics
(3) Feedback
(4) Color
(5) Highlighted Text
(6) Sound/Voice
(7) Humor/Surprise

Part III of the form was devoted to specific recommendations regarding effective utilization of the courseware. Specifically, teachers were asked to indicate with what groups the courseware was most effective by placing a check in the appropriate box. They were also asked for what purpose(s) the courseware was most effective. The last portion of the teacher form contained a series of open-ended questions designed to parallel and enrich the data obtained quantitatively via the rating scales and checklists.

Reliability of the Teacher Courseware-Evaluation Form. The reliability data presented below represent analyses of the responses of 200 teachers who utilized the forms to evaluate a variety of educational courseware. The alpha internal consistency estimates for each of the four categores and total score were as follows:

Content = .90 (10 items)
Instr. Quality = .74 (5 items)
Tech. Quality = .77 (7 items)
Documentation = .87 (4 items)
Total Score = .94 (26 itmes)

These values are more than adequate as indicators of the accuracy and consistency of responses, and in the case of Documentation and Total Score, quite high. These data indicate that the statements developed do indeed support the selected four categories and overall score and that the instrument was accurate and meaningful for assessing the educational courseware in this project.

Development of the Student Courseware Evaluation Form.

Fifteen statements were developed to assess student reactions to the courseware based upon the same comprehensive literature review. Very little information was available to guide development of this form, however, because software evaluation has relied primarily on review by "experts".

Such experts often include teachers, administrators, and/or independent software reviewers, rather than students. Therefore, every effort was made to develop items that would parallel the content of those in the teacher form while simultaneously insuring that the readability level was appropriate to low-level adult learners inexperienced in evaluation. In addition, for ease of use, fewer items were included and a singular response format was employed. All statements were positively-worded, and students were asked to respond in the same manner requested of teachers.

Reliability of the Student Courseware Evaluation Form. Reliability data for this form was obtained from analyses of the responses of 833 students who utilized the forms to evaluate a variety of courseware. The alpha internal consistency estimate for all 15 items was .89. This value is quite high and indicates that the instrument as designed is both accurate and meaningful for student assessment of courseware. Since students were evaluating a variety of programs, and thus a variety of target concepts, additional reliability analyses were conducted to validate the high reliability level obtained for the total data set. In these analyses, separate reliability estimates were obtained for selected sub-samples of students within a particular site who had evaluated the same courseware. Alpha reliability estimates for the total scores within these sub-samples were: .82, .88, .90, .88, .86, and .93. These estimates provide additional support for the very high reliability obtained for the total data set. (Note that a similar analysis for sub-samples of teachers-within-sites was not performed because of the relatively few numbers of teachers from each site.)

Data Yielded by Quantitative Data Analysis

Data analyses of the rating scales employed in the Teacher Courseware Evaluation Forms were displayed as Overall Mean Ratings, Scale Mean Ratings, and Item-level Mean Ratings. A brief summary of these three levels of analysis is provided below:

(1) Overall Mean Ratings - This value represents the average rating given to the courseware by teachers and students in all sites who participated in the study and is based upon all 26 items in the teacher form.

(2) Scale Mean Ratings - This value represents the average rating given by teachers for each of the four categories represented in the forms: Content (10 items), Instructional Quality (5 items), Technical Quality (7 items), and Documentation (4 items).

(3) Item-level Ratings - This value represents the average rating given by teachers for individual items. There are 26 item-level ratings.

(4) Descriptive Data - Responses requiring a check were tabulated and frequencies and percentages were then calculated with respect to Program Elements and Educational Recommendations.

Qualitative Data Collection Procedures

In addition to gathering information that could be analyzed statistically, a substantive effort was made to elicit information from teachers and students using a variety of methods such as open-ended questions on teacher and student courseware forms, focus group interviews, teacher and student logs, and participant observation.

During qualitative data analysis of each of the above sources of information, all comments, quotes, and statements made by both teachers and students were carefully read, sorted, and coded. Similar statements or comments were subsequently categorized, thus reducing a large, cumbersome data set to a more manageable and meaningful one. The emergent categories were then given a "label" based upon the content that they described. For example, a teacher's request for more "on screen" directions, coupled with another teacher's comment regarding difficulties with the program manual, were both included within the category labeled Documentation. Consequently, this technique involved the continual identification and labeling of broad categories to describe the hundreds of teacher and student comments that were made during the course of the project. Once the categories were defined, all comments, etc. relating to a single category were enumerated in list form.

Data Yielded by Qualitative Data Analysis

Thirteen categories emerged from the qualitative data analysis procedure that were representative of the comments made by teachers and students during evaluation of the courseware. These thirteen categories provided the organisational format used to present this data to the corporate project sponsor. These categories included:

Content
Suggestions for Integration
Instructional Quality
Comparison with Other Teaching Methods
Technical Quality
Major Strengths
Documentation
Major Disadvantages
Program Elements
Suggestions for Improvement
Utilization
Program Usage
Missing Content

Note that some of the categories are identical to those used to develop item stems for the teacher and student courseware evaluation forms. This results from the intent to develop open-ended questions and interview guides to parallel content reflected in the item stems, thus validating the quantitative ratings.

Data presentation. Data were subsequently presented to the project sponsor according to the data source. Three data sources were used to organize and present the data:

(1) Teacher Courseware Evaluations and Interviews - This section included teachers' written comments from the open-ended questions contained in the Teacher Courseware Evaluation Form and comments made and transcribed from 12 hours of tape-recorded, focus-group interviews.

(2) Student Interviews - This section included students' comments and quotes based on 31 hours of tape-recorded, focus group interviews.

(3) Student Courseware Evaluations - This section included written responses of students to the open-ended questions on the Student Courseware Evaluation Form.

For each data source, comments and quotes were enumerated in the list format previously described and presented for each courseware program.

Summary and Conclusions

This paper has described the dual methodology employed to address specific decision questions relating to the suitability of educational courseware for adult students. The benefits that accrued from this combined approach are as follows:

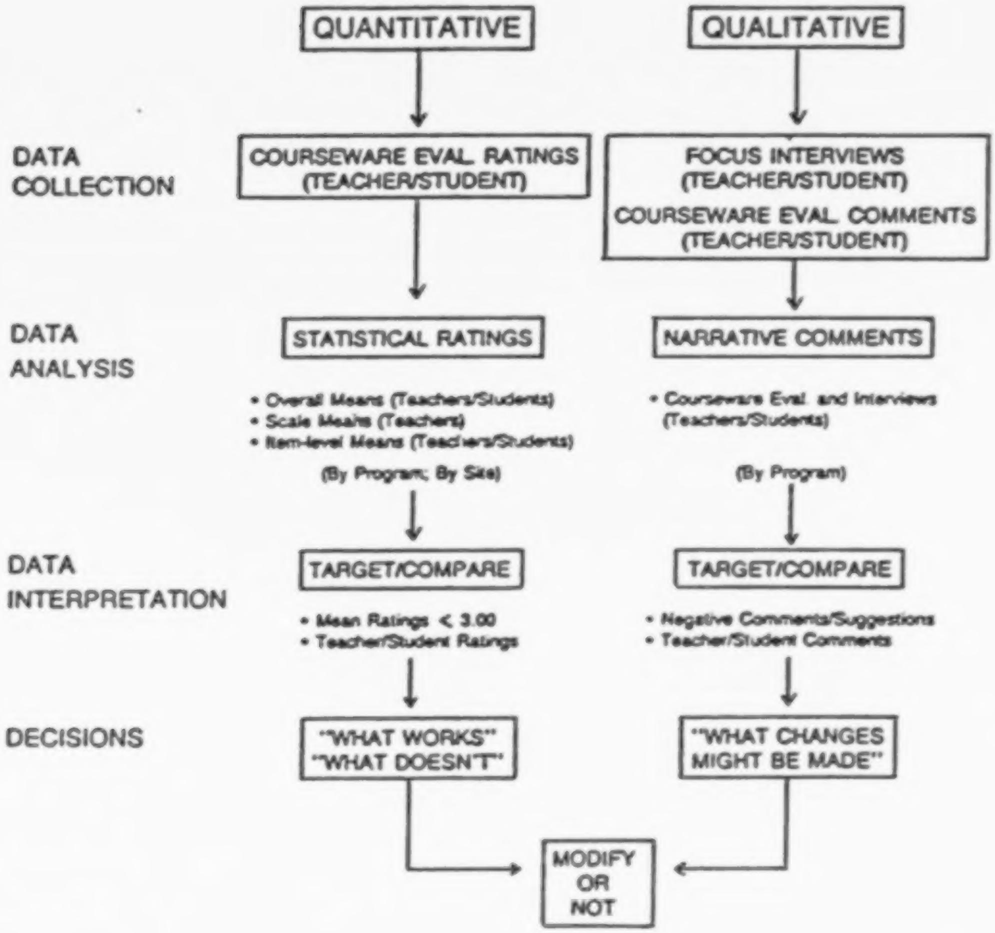
(1) Quantitative ratings provided a means for targeting what courseware "worked" and what didn't. In addition, although teacher and student courseware forms were not identical, they provided a general basis for comparing teachers' and students' responses.

(2) Qualitative findings enriched, and in many cases validated, quantitative ratings. Furthermore, this method elicited additional information unobtainable from the quantitative ratings, namely specific suggestions for modifications and elaboration of both the positive and negative aspects of selected courseware.

Finally, it must be noted that qualitative approaches such as those described, generate an overwhelming amount of data. For a large study population, it is imperative to have procedures in place and personnel available for data analysis and interpretation. If such resources are unavailable, sole use of the quantitative procedures would make data analysis much more manageable and still produce quality information.

Figure 1. EVALUATION METHOD

"SUITABILITY OF COURSEWARE"


QUANTITATIVE
QUALITATIVE
DATA COLLECTION
COURSEWARE EVAL. RATINGS (TEACHER/STUDENT)
FOCUS INTERVIEWS (TEACHER/STUDENT)
COURSEWARE EVAL. COMMENTS (TEACHER/STUDENT)
DATA ANALYSIS
STATISTICAL RATINGS
• Overall Means (Teachers/Students)
• Scale Means (Teachers)
• Item-level Means (Teachers/Students)
(By Program; By Site)
NARRATIVE COMMENTS
• Courseware Eval. and Interviews (Teachers/Students)
(By Program)
DATA INTERPRETATION
TARGET/COMPARE
• Mean Ratings < 3.00
• Teacher/Student Ratings
TARGET/COMPARE
• Negative Comments/Suggestions
• Teacher/Student Comments
DECISIONS
"WHAT WORKS" "WHAT DOESN'T"
"WHAT CHANGES MIGHT BE MADE"
MODIFY OR NOT

DIFFERENT WOMEN'S WAYS OF KNOWING: A FEMINIST PERSPECTIVE ON THE INTERSECTION OF GENDER, RACE AND CLASS IN THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF KNOWLEDGE

Wendy Luttrell
Visiting Assistant Professor
Duke University
Sociology Department
Durham, NC 27706

This paper analyzes how Black and white, working-class women participate in creating their identities and attach meanings to their school experiences, emotions and knowledge, providing us with a better understanding of the social construction of knowledge.

> "Well, I'm not schoolwise, but I'm streetwise and motherwise and housewifewise. I think there are two kinds of intelligence -- streetwise and schoolwise. I don't know much facts about things I learned in school, but I know a lot about life on the streets. I guess I someday might be schoolwise, if I stick to it long enough. But what I have now, what I know already nobody can take away."
> (Doreen, high school equivalency student)

> "You don't need an education to be smart. I know people who can read and write and do their figures. They are smart but they just never finished school. Like me and my husband. We've learned a lot along the road--in that school of hard knocks. And that makes us smart."
> (Betty, adult basic education student)

The two women quoted above come from distinctly different cultural backgrounds. Doreen, born and raised in a white, ethnic working-class urban community in a northeastern city, talks about her early school experiences and how she couldn't wait until the day she could quit and go work in the local box factory. Betty, born and raised on a farm in the southeast, describes how school was a luxury -- something she could attend only on rainy days along with all the other Black children she knew who worked for white farmers. Yet, despite their differences, they share some similar ideas about knowledge -- its dominant conception, how it is produced, how it is controlled, and to whose benefit it serves. They both distinguish between knowledge produced in school or in textbooks by authorities and knowledge produced through experience. They also have some similar ideas about their own knowledge, especially their "common sense" capabilities to take care of others. Their ways of knowing are embedded in community, family and work relationships and cannot be judged by dominant academic standards. Most important, their common sense knowledge cannot be dismissed, minimized or taken away.

My research is about Black and white working-class women and the shaping of their self perceptions as adult learners. It is based on participant observation and in-depth interviews with women who are attending adult basic education programs. In this project I draw upon research where the process of schooling is examined as an arena of struggle (Willis 1977; Connell et al 1982; Fuller 1980; Apple and Weiss 1983; Valli 1983; Gaskell 1985; Holland and Eisenhart, forthcoming). In this arena, students, teachers and school administrators battle over conflicting identities, needs and values generating both resistance and compliance, discontent and acquiescence to dominant educational, class, race and gender relations. The contestants in these arenas of struggle are not simply individuals with distinct personality traits; they are also representative of subordinate and dominant groups in society (Apple and Weiss 1983; Bourdieu and Passeron 1977). Consequently, the different struggles, adaptations, meanings and knowledge that people create are all part of the development of gender, race and class consciousness: how and what we know about ourselves as men or women, as white or Black, as middle-class or working-class people. Adult education, rather than secondary schooling processes, is the context in which I examine how gender, race and class values, styles and knowledge collide with the dominant culture, producing multiple identities and consciousness for adult women (Luttrell 1984).

For many women, their self perceptions as knowledge receivers rather than knowledge producers have been a potent force in shaping their conceptions of womanhood (Belenky et al 1987). In fact, much of contemporary feminism can be interpreted as women's reaction, adaptation to and struggle against prevailing notions about knowledge. At the same time, current feminist accounts, drawing on psychoanalytic theories, have located "women's ways of knowing" within the gender identity formation process (Gilligan 1982; Chodorow 1978; Keller 1978, 1982) and within patriarchal epistemological divisions and Western conceptions of rationality which dichotomize emotion and thought; objectivity and subjectivity; mind and body; masculinity and femininity (Smith 1979; Bordo 1986; Fee 1981).

My interest in this paper is to expand an analysis of how women participate in creating their identities and attach meanings to their experiences and knowledge. First, I will argue that gender, race and class are integrated yet sometimes conflicting identities that together shape "women's ways of knowing." While these social categories may be pulled apart and examined individually, ultimately they remain inseparable in the shaping of self knowledge and consciousness. Second, I will suggest that while "women's ways of knowing" may exist by virtue of patriarchal imposition, it is not understood by all women in the same way. Third, I will present an expanded set of criteria by which to analyze women's ways of knowing, related to the role of working-class women's work and family ties. Rather than promoting a developmental, gender-trait approach to analyzing women's ways of knowing, I suggest one that is grounded in women's domestic or "reproductive" work and the conflicting values attendant within specific race and class contexts. These three contributions expand upon feminist critiques of the social construction of knowledge, which have minimized the mediating roles of race and class in the production and reproduction of femininities, knowledge and power. At its most fundamental level I want to argue that in order to understand women's adult education experiences, we must understand how different levels of power operate in the concrete practices of women's everyday life. (Smith, 1987). These concrete practices include the work of the family, the work of being a woman, and the constitution of women's subjective selves (Rockhill, 1987).

Research Methodology

Previous studies of gender have been criticized for assuming universal differences and not examining the construction of gender in specific historical and social contexts (Rosaldo 1980; Stack 1986; Thorne 1986; Dill 1983; Jaggar 1983). In answer to this critique I chose to explore and compare gender conceptions of knowledge within two specific contexts in order to best understand the dynamics by which gender values, styles and knowledge are created and reproduced.

The adult education programs that were studied in the participant observation stage of the research were chosen for two reasons. First, while one program is located in a community setting and the other a workplace setting, both are similar in that they draw students from a distinct community/cultural background. The white students all come from a white, ethnic, working-class urban community (mostly Polish and Irish) and attended neighborhood schools. In line with other studies of white, working-class culture (Rubin 1976; Kohn 1977), I chose a community in which a majority of adults dropped out of or have no education beyond high school, are employed in skilled or semi-skilled occupations, are paid an hourly wage and experience periodic unemployment. The Black, working-class students all come from southern, rural communities where they grew up tending the land and only occasionally were able to attend school. Despite the fact that these Black, working-class women currently reside in different neighborhoods surrounding the university where they work as housekeepers, they share a common heritage in and identity with Black, rural culture. The women's family/work experiences, which have been split between service work and farm labor in an effort to hold onto the land, are representative of contemporary southern Black, working-class culture noted by other researchers (Stack and Hall 1982). Second, both programs were chosen because they provide a unique access to working-class women learners. Each program addresses the deeply embedded conflict between self and others that these and other women share. Here schooling is not presented as simply an individual self-development process, but one that is rooted in community or work relationships, hence preserving these women's primary identities as caretakers of others' needs thus making education all the more accessible.

In the initial phase of the study I took notes in classroom settings and conducted unstructured interviews with over 200 women. Then a stratified, selective sample was drawn to represent the basic demographic profile of women in each community, including marital status, occupation, income, educational level and religion. It also reflected the basic profile of women in each program in terms of age, past attendance at school, number of children living at home, and in terms of classroom, program or community participation (active vs. inactive). With each sample of women I conducted in-depth interviews at the women's homes, lasting from two to four hours, and which I repeated three times over a year's time.

Different Women's Ways of Knowing: A Discussion

The language of power relations is deeply embedded in the women's discussion of themselves as learners. Integrally woven into the race and class-based concepts of intelligence and common sense which pits experience against schooling and working-class people against middle-class people, is a hidden gender-based concept that pits autonomy against relationships and lays the basis for unequal power relations between men and women. By carefully examining common sense knowledge it becomes evident that this capacity differs for men and women.

Examples of men's common sense knowledge and practice all involve activities done independently which invest them with power over women, either economically or emotionally. On the other hand, examples of women's common sense involves activities which are in the service of others, most often as mothers and wives. Women's common sense is embedded in relational activities, things done out of feeling or instinct, and are not seen as yielding power.

Feminist critiques of dominant conceptions of knowledge and ways of knowing have built their analysis on the false dichotomy between the productive, "public" sphere assigned to men vs. the reproductive, "private" sphere assigned to women (Rosaldo 1974; Ortner 1974; Kelly 1979). This dichotomy has arguably existed as a universal (Ortner 1974), but is most pronounced with the advent of industrialization where men have enjoyed access to and control of the productive/public sphere while women have been relegated to the reproductive/private sphere. Women's experience and knowledge as mothers, wives, daughters and sisters -- their activity in the private sphere -- has been and is valued less and considered less important than men's activity and knowledge in the public sphere (Ehrenreich and English 1978). At the same time, the private or reproductive work that women do involves different skills and capabilities than the productive work that men do. The emotional caring and nurturing of others can not easily be abstracted out from daily activities, making it impossible to distinguish what is "love" and what is "labor" (Rose 1983). Consequently, it is argued that women's ways of knowing or knowledge can not be abstracted out from emotions and make objective or rational. The false dichotomy between emotional vs. objective labor which promotes relations of authority and domination of men who are exempt from personal service work over women who perform unpaid domestic work as part of their gender role is therefore translated into the false dichotomy between feelings vs. thoughts. Women then are associated with feelings while men are associated with thoughts, thereby recreating relations of authority and domination through rational knowledge (Fee 1981).

The process by which objectivity gets joined with masculinity and emotion gets joined with femininity is also mediated by class and race divisions. Indeed, women do not experience their role in the process of reproduction, their femininities or their emotions in the same way. This issue is at the heart of the differences I document and analyze between white and Black working-class women's experiences and perceptions as learners. While white, working-class women predominantly see themselves and other women as knowledge receivers, Black working-class women see themselves and other women as potential knowledge sources. I would suggest that this important difference between Black and white working-class women is a product of conflicting values about women's work -- particularly the nature of women's centrality within the family and kin networks. Building on the contribution of feminist social historians who have suggested that working-class and Black women's political activity and consciousness grow out of their more communal forms of domestic work as well as the more community-oriented values that are promoted through this work (Hewitt 1984; Jones 1985), I examine women's ways of knowing as an outgrowth of women's work and how it is defined within specific race and class contexts. I suggest that Black women's work roles, which has historically been different from those of white, working-class women differ in two important ways. First is the legacy from slavery whereby domestic work in white people's homes was preferred over field work and therefore more highly valued. Second is the centrality of Black women's role in keeping communities together through kin networks (Stack 1974). In this way, Black women's ways of knowing have been key to Black survival and therefore cannot be diminished as easily as white, working-class women's.

However, for all the women interviewed, female ways of knowing are seen with mixed emotions and images. But these doubled visions are different for white and Black working-class women. For white, working-class women it appears that their role as caretakers generates a sense of community, pride and selfhood. But at the same time by performing this very necessary nurturing service, their knowledge and power is minimized. But for Black women, it is not performing domestic work and their role as caretakers which distance them from their knowledge and power, but rather the persistent difficulties in maintaining dignity and self respect both within male-female relationships and white-Black relationships which get translated into knowledge and power deficits and inequalities. The doubled visions expressed by all the women fosters both resistance and compliance, rage and complacency to dominant knowledge, gender, race and class relations and get expressed through both past and present schooling experiences.

Through these different judgments about the work that women do, the knowledge women hold and the feelings women express, we discover the complex linkages between gender, race and class in the social construction of knowledge. Because patriarchal hierarchies and epistemological polarities take on different meanings for women through the mediating or meaning-making structures of class and race, fundamental gender asymmetries and inequalities are obfuscated.

Selected References

Apple. M.W. and L. Weiss. 1983. "Ideology and Practice in Schooling." Pp. 3-33 in *Ideology and Practice in Schooling*, edited by L. Weiss. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Belenky, M.F., B.M. Clinchy, N.R. Goldberger, J.M. Tarule. 1986. *Women's Ways of Knowing: The Development of Self, Voice and Mind*. New York: Basic Books.

Bordo, S. 1986. "The Cartesian Masculinization of Thought." *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society* Vol. 11, No. 3.

Bourdieu, P. and J.C. Passeron. 1977. *Reproduction in Education, Society and Culture.* Trans. by Richard Nice. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Chodorow, N. 1978. *The Reproduction of Mothering: Psychoanalysis and the Sociology of Gender*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Connell, R.W., D.J. Ashenden, S. Kessler, G.W. Dowsett. 1982. *Making the Difference: Schools, Families and Social Division*. London: George Allen and Unwin.

Dill, B.T. 1983. "On the Hem of Life: Race, Class and Prospects for Sisterhood" in *Class, Race, and Sex: The Dynamics of Control*, ed. by Swerdlow and Lessinger. Boston: G.K. Hall and Company.

Ehrenreich, B. and D. English. 1978. *For Her Own Good: 150 Years of the Experts' Advice to Women*. Garden City, N.Y.: Anchor Press.

Fuller, M. 1980. "Black Girls in a London Comprehensive School" in R. Deem, *Schooling for Women's Work*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Gilligan, C. 1982. *In a Different Voice: Psychological Theory and Women's Development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Jones, J. 1985. *Labor of Love, Labor of Sorrow: Black women, work, and the family from slavery to the present.* New York: Basic Books.

Keller, E.F. 1982."Feminism and Science" in *Signs* Vol. 7, No. 3: 589-602.

Luttrell, W. 1984. The Getting of Knowledge: A Study of Working-Class Women and Education. Dissertation. University of California at Santa Cruz: University Microfilms International.

Ortner, S. "Is Female to Male as Nature is to Culture?" in Women, Culture and Society, ed. by Rosaldo and Lamphere. Pp. 17-42, Stanford: Stanford University Press

Rockhill, K. 1987. "Literacy as Threat/Desire: Longing to be Somebody" in Women and Education: A Canadian Perspective, ed. by Gaskell and McLaren. Pp. 315-333, Calgary, Alberta: Detselig Enterprises Ltd.

Rose, H. 1983. "Hand, Brain, and Heart: A Feminist Epistemology for the Natural Sciences." Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society. Vol. 9, No. 1.

Rubin, L.B. 1976. Worlds of Pain: Life in the Working-Class Family. New York: Basic Books.

Smith, D. 1987. The Everyday World As Problematic: A Feminist Sociology. Boston: Northeastern University Press. Stack, C. 1986. "The Culture of Gender: Women and Men of Color" in Signs Vol. 11, No. 2: 321-324.

_____. 1974. All Our Kin: Strategies for Survival in the Black Community. New York: Random House.

Willis, P. 1977. Learning to Labour: How Working-Class Kids Get Working-Class Jobs. New York: Columbia University Press.

UNIVERSITIES AND EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL PURPOSE

John McIlroy, Department of Extramural Studies, Manchester University
Bruce Spencer, Department of External Studies, Leeds University

Abstract: British university adult education is in crisis, departments are being forced into educational fundraising much of which threatens traditional university values. A review of provision for both trade union and social work education allows an examination of the common issues involved and illuminates future strategy for work with sponsoring agencies.

UNIVERSITIES AND EDUCATION SOCIAL PURPOSE

The crisis in British university adult education

Since the 1970s a new strategy for British university adult and continuing education has been developing, essentially emanating from governments but supported also by many within higher education, it emphasises income generation and the sale of university adult education services. The assertion that adult education must become less dependent on state finance has been accompanied by cuts in resources and by new funding formulas emphasising payment by results, cost effectiveness and value for money. This has steered departments of adult education and extramural studies, to a far greater degree than previously, into the field of post experience vocational education (PEVE). In particular it is argued that the adult education arms of the universities could generate income by selling their services to a wide range of sponsoring agencies whose educational requirements it is asserted they are well placed to meet.

The development of this general strategy for UK universities has been documented, argued about and alternatives prescribed by the authors elsewhere (1): the purpose of this paper is to consider to what extent working with agencies can also be married to past concerns of university adult education. Can it continue education for social purpose, redefine and rejuvenate what is best in the tradition of UK university adult education? This question will be examined via a study and comparison of two areas in which in the recent past university adult education (UAE) has sought to combine liberal education and vocational relevance: education for trade unionists and education for social workers.

An exploration of these two areas reveals similarities. In each we can observe a clash between notions of a liberal university education and conceptions of 'professional' training for service; tensions between the philosophies and goals of the academic host and the external agency; anxieties on the part of the 'client' that the provider's autonomy and defence of academic freedom produces a curriculum which is subversive and 'politicising' and as such dysfunctional to professional and organisational efficiency; internal university concerns about the appropriateness of the location within the institution of such 'applied' studies; attempts by the sponsoring bodies to develop provision in other educational institutions where the approach is perceived as more hospitable and amenable.

In the limited space we have available our central theme will be to explore the tension between the 'sponsor' and the educational 'provider' over liberalism verses vocationalism in educational objectives. The role of the third 'actor' the central university will only be discussed in passing whilst that of the fourth, the state, has had to be omitted.

Trade union education

Individual unions and the trade union congress (TUC) were involved in the early development of workers' education, with their members supporting the early extension lectures and later the sustained (three year) tutorial evening courses. The positions taken by individual unions and trade unionists in the arguments surrounding the interwar debate over independent workers' education - between supporters of the Workers' Educational Association (WEA) trade union committee and the National Council of Labour Colleges (NCLC) - tends to blur shared concerns for 'emancipatory' education which would also equip those attending courses to work within labour movement organisations. It is important for our purposes to recognise the fact that both key providers of education for trade unionists were free to maintain and develop UK adult educational traditions because they operated within a decentralised regional structure and at a time when the TUC had few resources and a limited role.

The post second world war growth of university adult education (extramural) departments within most English and Welsh universities allowed for the development of sustained and linked courses for specific industries and unions within the UAE departments - with perhaps the best known example being the miners courses undertaken first at Sheffield and subsequently at another half dozen UAE departments. Some of these were day release with optional certificates available at the end of the courses. Discussions took place with sponsoring bodies but we can find little evidence of educational policy divisions between providers and client prior to the 1960s.

Earlier attempts by the TUC to take a leading role in union representative education came to fruition in 1964 when the NCLC was integrated into a new TUC education system with the intention of providing a unified provision for the increasing number of workplace representatives. The TUC education sub committee, with its new regional education officers - the former NCLCers - began developing regional provision building outwards from the universities and the WEA to college based courses. Whilst the adult education methods of the former providers were considered useful in the early years, their concerns for a liberal and sustained programme (admittedly in some cases masking a hostility to labour movement objectives) were soon to be considered handicaps by the TUC by comparison with colleges which were thought more to be in tune with 'training' and practical skills development. UAE departments were left with a limited amount of work and they failed to forge a broad and rigorous education programme for trade unionists which could have perhaps been embodied in national certified provision. (2)

More recently the TUCs concern for practical training has been allied to their Education Department's emphasis upon student-centred and workplace problem-based courses. This has been presented by some commentators as being within the best traditions of student-determined adult education practice, but this ignores the extent to which these apparently self-directed programmes of study are centrally determined and exclude rigorous and critical examination of much that was previously recognised as central to 'industrial studies'. For example economics, politics, theoretical approaches to unionism and industrial relations, and a study of labour movement history are largely ignored.

This shift has also served to heighten further, tensions between the central university, which express concern about university standards and courses appropriate to university level study, and UAE which have been keen to open up new areas of multi-disciplinary study such as industrial studies or cultural studies. These attempt to marry relevance and academic rigour drawing across subject boundaries and, in the examples of industrial studies and applied social studies, some practical application. UAE has wanted to maintain a commitment to socially purposive adult education whilst rejecting a narrow 'vocational' training approach. In this sense UAE has been caught between the demands of the client, an attempt to defend liberalism and autonomy and the traditional central elitist concern of the university with 'standards'.

Social work education

University involvement in social work education in Britain can be traced back to the end of the nineteenth century and was particularly associated with the charity work of the educational settlements in the East End of London. Lecture series appropriate for those working in charity and child care agencies were offered between the wars and a number of different educational and research institutes were established in British universities. The first professional social work education course was established in London in 1929 but it remained the only professional course in the 1930s and early 1940s. Only after the war when there was a growing interest in Welfare State provision did social work and social work education take off. The changing emphasis in social work towards a social psychological approach in case work gave a boost to educational courses exploring this new emphasis. UAE departments had retained an interest in 'social work' courses, many targeted at out-of-working-hours mature students and charity volunteers. Courses were offered which led to certificates in child welfare and criminology (attracting prison staff) these courses linked UAE concerns for liberal adult education for social purpose with those who were first-line providers of services for the working classes.

Many traditional universities were uneasy about the development of social work practice as an academic subject, believing it to be professional training without any academic base. This was a concern which in some cases prevented the development of internal applied social studies courses and departments. In the 1950s, reports (principally those associated with Younghusband) on social work began emphasising the importance of the good management of case work and by the 1960s local authority employers came to question the value of academic sociology for practising social workers. At the same time there was a demand for generic social workers and for appropriate broad-based training for these new non specialist case workers, a training which some suggested may be more suited to non university providers.

However, some internal university courses did develop to provide undergraduate education and professional training which was considered appropriate. At first many UAE departments were slow to respond to an educational provision which some university adult educators considered most appropriate to mature entrants - an applied multi-disciplinary study which could draw upon experience and academic work. Sheffield UAE department was the first to offer in 1962 a mature post graduate, one year, full-time certificate (later Diploma) course and five other UAE departments quickly followed with all gaining direct government funding for the new provision (not DES but DHSS and Home Office). This supplemented shorter day and evening provision for more typical extramural students. To some extent this prevented a drift away from the liberal social studies base of social work courses which was envisaged by earlier proposals to move courses out of universities to polytechnics and colleges. This allowed the retention of a liberal approach on these courses whilst meeting some of the objectives sort in the change of emphasis by employers and the profession. All courses attracted the Certificate Qualification in Social Work (CQSW) which was recognised by employers as granting professional grade status.

The concerns over the lack of case work skills and the too broad an education approach were pushed back at the end of the 1960s by the 'rediscovery' of social problems and of poverty, which was associated with the failures of British capitalism - highlighted by the 'new left' writers at the time. Thus liberal and radical concerns took centre stage - emphasising community approaches and seemingly questioning the efficacy of individual case work. These lasted until the late 1970s when again practical rather than theoretical issues were being raised and were to displace them in the utilitarian 1980s. This later emphasis has been associated with greater employer involvement and the developing role of the Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work (CCETSW). In particular the launching of college certificates on a day release basis for 'case workers', the Certificate in Social Service, emphasises practical and to some extent professional concerns rather than radical socio/political theory.

Struggling to deal with this, many radicals, also unhappy with what they saw as remote academic concerns, searched for a new, practical, radical view. But to some extent their emphasis upon practical solutions only ends up denying the validity of ideological perspectives. Some have argued for integration of training and education perspectives and for example for the need for practical work to be undertaken by tutors alongside students. But these later demands whilst superfically attractive, pull against sustained academic work and deny the distinctive role of academic study which could be seen as supplementing the practical experience of students. (3)

Only a detailed study could reveal the extent to which liberal concerns were retained on courses, and inevitably the picture would vary but the 'interference' in institutional provision was 'indicative' - with CCETSW laying down guidelines - rather than giving directions. When CCETSW proposed in one report to lay down specific educational provision Professor Halsey was moved to express concern about universities academic freedom and about upsetting the delicate balance between meeting professional requirements and university needs to pursue open enquiry. (4)

The withdrawal of direct government funding for provision and its replacement by UGC funding exposed some UAE departments to hostile central university attitudes and inevitably led to running down provision - such as was the case at Leeds where the last Diploma students finished in 1987. In other cases the funding change heralded the integration of provision within internal departments - for example at Liverpool and Manchester.

Conclusions

There are contrasts to be made between sponsoring agents:in the case of TUC we have a bureaucratic institution incorporated within the existing order and yet representing a movement 'oppositional' to it. Given its nature and its view of what universities are offering it is perhaps not surprising that it has developed a policy which is both ruthless and strategic. This can be contrasted with CCETSWs approach, which is of course coming from a profession more at one with academia, it has greater sympathy, is more liberal, has more confidence and therefore a greater desire to accommodate to academic freedom.

Social work is of course a 'job' whereas lay union representatives are people fulfilling a voluntary 'role'. There are therefore more resources available for social work education - more time to study and availability for time off from employers who want to improve employee skills. In the case of union representatives the limited legal rights to time off helps reinforce the technocratic approach to union education.

There have always been 'moral panics' about unions and workplace representatives whereas this is relatively new - perhaps only in the last ten years for social work. Consequently the arguments in social work education have been broader and perhaps more honest even if bordering on 'ultra-leftism'. By contrast some tutors in trade union education have themselves been prone to dismiss academic freedom as a bourgeois concept, and have leaned towards the technocratic view of union education therefore they have integrated less well within liberal adult education institutions than those in social work. Even if it is true that social work has drifted more to the polys it is still a more academic environment that local colleges.

Those UAE departments with individual union supported courses and those with CQSW courses have retained an organised sustained education within university traditions in which the 'sponsor' has accorded partnership rights to the 'host'. However the denouement with many trade union courses going to local further education colleges and many social work courses going to internal university departments or polys illuminates the predicament of the modern extramural department.

The new emphasis on shorter PEVE type courses has in many cases avoided discussion of educational arguments and of the fundamental social purposes of UAE provision. If providers are serious in wanting to make universities available to a wider public (across the whole spectrum from community education to PEVE) and are not just seeking ways to make money they should take note of the tensions inherent in sponsor/host relations highlighted above. If these relations are executed adroitly they need not clash with the universities past concern with education for social purpose. Indeed if openly argued and negotiated, work with these kinds of sponsoring agents could help rejuvenate and redefine what is best in the tradition of university adult education. But in the absence of a clear assertion of the universities' purposes, academic freedom and university autonomy will gradually be abandoned in the face of creeping vocationalism.

Endnotes

1. University Adult Education in Crisis Leeds Studies in Adult and Continuing Education, University of Leeds, 1988.
2. See in particular J McIlroy, 'Adult Education and the Role of the Client - The TUC Education Scheme 1929-80', Studies in the Education of Adults, vol 6 no 2 1985.
3. This section is drawn from a number of sources and interviews with UAE tutors; in particular N Frost, M Stein, 'Educating Social Workers - a Political Analysis', in The Political Education of Servants of the State, Manchester University Press, 1988; C Jones 'Social Work Education, 1900-1977', in N Parry et al., eds., Social Work, Welfare and the State, Edward Arnold, 1979. For sustained radical discussion see articles in The Bulletin on Social Policy, particularly N Ginsberg 'Crisis in Social Work Education, What Crisis?', 1979; and B Kornreich, 'A Critique of Social Work Education', 1978.
4. A H Halsey, 'Professionalism, Social Work, and Paper 20.1', Issues in Social Work Education, vol 4 no 2 Winter 1984.

INTERNATIONAL ADULT EDUCATION: DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM MODEL

ATHALINDA J. McINTOSH
University of Surrey

ABSTRACT

This paper outlines some factors relevant to establishing a model for curriculum planning for the study of international adult education.

To that extent some philosophical considerations, some general goals and aims and some implications for the provision and practice of such a programme are identified. An International Analysis Model for Curriculum Planning is offered.

INTRODUCTION

This paper is a consideration of international adult education as an academic discipline. Its aim is to outline some factors relevant to establishing and developing a model for curriculum planning.

Adult education has, within the past ten years, become a genuinely international movement (Hall 1987: 64). Collins (1987: 59) points out that there is a growing literature on international adult education.

Cassara and Draper (1987: 67) also draw attention to the increasing concern of graduate programmes in the United States of America (USA) and Canada with other countries with international adult education.

There seems to be little work on developing the curriculum for the study of international adult education and yet the need seems to be becoming not only more apparent but inevitable. One of the problems that emerges in reading the literature available on the subject is the ubiquity of the subject matter. As Cookson (1987a: 101) writes, within and across national boundaries adult education reveals a bewildering complexity of forms. Hopefully this paper will help to clarify some of the issues.

DEFINING INTERNATIONAL ADULT EDUCATION

A fundamental requisite of any academic research is having some manageable definitions. As in any applied discipline, international adult education can be defined in terms of a knowledge base on the one hand, and as a field of study and practice on the other, or what Boucouvalas (1986: 177) calls the distinction between the PERSPECTIVE or DIMENSION of international adult education and the FIELD.

I have often seen/heard international and comparative adult education used synonymously but it seems to be agreed by current writers that comparative adult education if anything is included in international adult education. The difference according to Cassara and Draper (1987: 67) is that international adult education implies commitment to action.

A general definition that I have recently offered (McIntosh, 1988: 7) is 'a study of national, transnational, and comparative adult education issues aimed at developing the theoretical, conceptual and practical frameworks of, and for, the education of adults'.

DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM IN INTERNATIONAL ADULT EDUCATION

Stenhouse (1975: 4) defines the curriculum as an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal. It could be argued that the study of international adult education lends itself, by its descriptive interpretation, to a view of curriculum based on the idea of common culture and common curriculum.

Lawton (1981: 109) refers to the situational or cultural analysis model of curriculum. He says that the logic of this model is that it demands that we look at society as it is now and as it is developing, also examining the curriculum of the past, and trying to plot trends of development.

In identifying the kind of society we have, and what kind of society we want to have, this has implications for the content of the curriculum, the target population and for practice.

In international adult education it seems to me that these are the arguments that are being applied to the world: that is examining the world in which we live; the world that we envisage and the role of adult education within and between those two worlds. A study of the world today will clearly take into account past perspectives.

Some of the recurring themes that are being identified for the purpose and development of the curriculum of international adult education I will briefly describe next.

A. SOME PHILOSOPHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Merriam (1984b; v) stresses the importance of understanding the philosophical foundation of the field of adult education. She says that a philosophical perspective distinguishes a professional adult educator from the practitioner or paraprofessional, on the grounds that such an orientation can inform decision-making, clarify practice and guide planning.

In planning a curriculum model the philosophical criteria, therefore, provides the basis for (at least) the aims of the curriculum, its justification and the structure of knowledge on which to base its practices.

Some assumptions underlying the philosophy of international adult education, are therefore:

(i) there are a group of people in the world who are beginning to identify themselves as adult educators with 'global common concerns',
(ii) there are issues that transcend national boundaries, that may provide the focus for adult educational practice,
(iii) adult education has a part to play in addressing global issues,
(iv) the world is an interacting system.

B. PERVASIVE GOALS AND AIMS OF INTERNATIONAL ADULT EDUCATION

Miyasaka (1987: 1) also stresses the need to discover the common aspects and problems that are being faced in adult education. As he reminds us, we are sharing the times and the world in which we live. Whilst he says that any trifle difference in each nation should not be neglected, he sees the priority as recognizing similarities.

The following are some of the pervasive areas of international adult education study.

1. Cultural sensitivity: avoiding parochialism

Thomas Sork (1987: 12) writes about creating cultural sensitivity by 'thinking internationally'. Caroline Ellwood (1976: 17) wrote about the future development of British university adult education. She stressed the need to consider global development to avoid parochialism. As Cookson (1987b: 13) says, when theory, research and practice are generated within the border of one country, then the curriculum will be similarly limited and limiting.

Rubenson (1987: 14) states that an openness and keen interest in what is going on elsewhere in the world does NOT characterise the work of adult education. In consequence the knowledge production suffers from parochialism.

2. Raising global consciousness

As Dohmen (1987: 79) reminds us, all the different nations, cultures and periods of historical development have their special value and meaning. Yet, as I have written myself (McIntosh, 1986a: 200), there is a prevailing need to integrate material from different perspectives into a coherent basis for research and discussion. It is important in adult education to attempt to minimize international misunderstandings and/or animosities. Indeed Dohmen says that it must be the interest and responsibility of international adult educators to promote our thinking about the meaning of human life and history in a given diversity of nations and cultures. Niemi (1987: 84) writes about a planetary consciousness, which is caring about universal issues that lie beyond the boundaries, or selfish concerns, or our own culture, or ourselves personally.

3. Social Development and Change: a critical analysis

The notion of social development and change are linked to what Botkin et al (1979: 132) refer to as the 'world problematique' - that is, attempting to deal with the enormous tangle of problems in sections of the world, which on one side are dealing with an era of scientific and technological advancement, and the human factors in dealing with this complexity on the other. The emphasis in international adult education, however, is to evaluate critically the direction of change, and its interpretation in terms of development. As Gelpi (1980: 19) states, knowledge, learning and education do not always develop in the direction of democratizing a given society. Inherent in Gelpi's position is that the role of adult education is embedded in a given value position.

Darkenwald and Merriam (1982: 58) discuss the concept of social transformation, which is a process of transforming educational processes to challenge existing social systems. International adult educators are interested in the value positions from which these theories and recommendations are derived - for example, the hegemonic positions. Hall (1987: 65) defines hegemony as 'the set of ideas which control our ability to act or transform our world'.

C. IMPLICATIONS FOR PROVISION AND PRACTICE

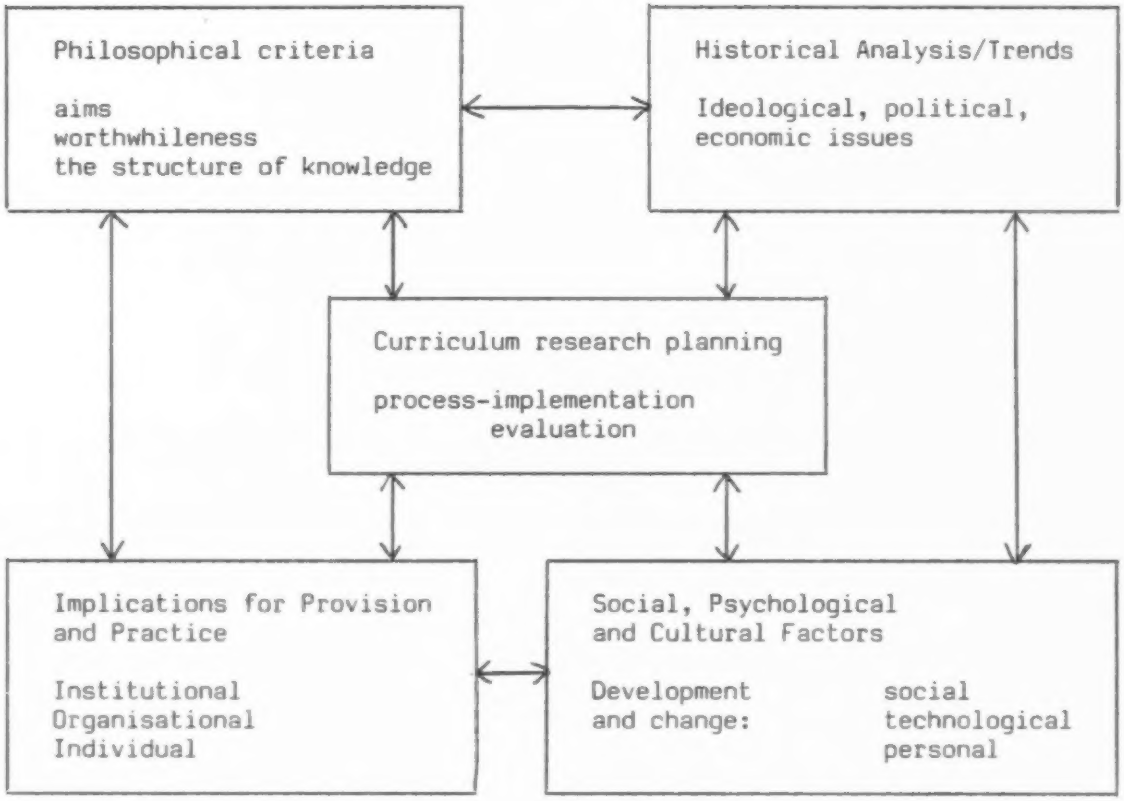
Gordon (1981: 162) writes that the study of the curriculum cannot be undertaken without equal reference to both theory and practice. Developing a curriculum in international adult education must go beyond the usual analysis of classroom practice. To start, the content of such a programme will be by definition grounded in a multi-disciplinary approach. If nothing else the inclusion of a second language would appear to be an essential prerequisite to the interpretation of another culture.

In organisational terms, drawing on some of Gelpi's (1980: 23 et seq) ideas in implementing lifelong education policies in particular, different types of institution would be involved in the practice. Boucouvalas (1986: 173) mentions exchange programmes, study tours and technical co-operation among different kinds of agencies and organisations as examples of these - in short, an amalgam and cooperative venture involving a wide range experiences.

A CURRICULUM MODEL FOR INTERNATIONAL ADULT EDUCATION

The following is based on the cultural analysis model of the curriculum as presented by Lawton (1981: 109). This type of educational model asks questions about the kind of knowledge and educational experience(s) that are needed to bridge the gap between what is and what may be required, for international awareness and action. At its simplest level I have taken into account concepts which may have global interpretations but differing national and/or cultural foci - for example, history, change, practice. I have used the arrows to indicate the inter-relatedness of the areas of study and the curriculum, in the sense of it being representational of a system.

FIGURE 1: International Analysis Model for Curriculum Planning


Philosophical criteria
aims
worthwhileness
the structure of knowledge
Historical Analysis/Trends
Ideological, political,
economic issues
Curriculum research planning
process-implementation
evaluation
Implications for Provision
and Practice
Institutional
Organisational
Individual
Social, Psychological
and Cultural Factors
Development
and change:
social
technological
personal

REFERENCES

Boucouvalas, Marcie 'Conceptualising International Adult Education as Field of Study and Practice' in Zukas, Miriam (ed) 'Papers from the Sixteenth Annual Conference (1986) of the Standing Conference on University Teaching and Research in the Education of Adults', University of Leeds, Department of Adult and Continuing Education, 1986 pp 167-179

Botkin, James W, Elmandra, Mahdi E, Malitza, Mirca 'No Limits to Learning: Bridging the Human Gap', Oxford, Pergamon Press, 1979

Cassara, Beverley B and Draper, James A 'International Studies in Adult Education' in Klevins, Chester (ed) 'Materials and Methods in Adult and Continuing Education', Los Angeles, Klevens Publications Inc, 1987, pp 67-73

Collins, Michael 'Competence in Adult Education: A New Perspective', London, University Press of America, 1987

Cookson, Peter S 'International Co-operation and Exchange' in Klevins, Chester (ed) 'Materials and Methods in Adult and Continuing Education', Los Angeles, Klevens Publications Inc, 1987a, pp 101-113

Cookson, Peter S 'Internationalizing the Curriculum' Abstract of the International Adult Education General Session II 'Bringing it Home' Newsletter of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education, October 1987b, p 13

Darkenwald, Gordon G and Merriam, Sharan B 'Adult Education: Foundations of Practice', London, Harper & Row, 1982

Dohmen, Gunther 'Career Possibilities in International Adult Education' in Klevins, Chester (ed) 'Materials and Methods in Adult and Continuing Education', Los Angeles, Klevens Publications Inc, 1987, pp 74-80

Ellwood, Caroline 'Adult Learning Today', London, Sage, 1976

Gelpi, E 'Politics and Lifelong Education Policies and Practices' in Cropley, A J (ed) 'Towards a System of Lifelong Education', Oxford, Pergamon, 1980, pp 16-30

Gordon, Peter (ed) 'The Study of the Curriculum', Batsford, 1981

Hall, Budd L 'International Overview' in Klevins, Chester (ed) 'Materials and Methods in Adult and Continuing Education', Los Angeles, Klevens Publications Inc, 1987, pp 64-66

Lawton, Dennis 'Models of Planning' in Gordon, Peter (ed) 'The Study of the Curriculum', London, Batsford, 1981, pp 105-112

McIntosh, Athalinda J 'Report of the Kellogg Fellows (1986) to the International and Comparative Adult Education Forum', University of Hull, July 1986a

McIntosh, Athalinda J 'International Adult Education as a field of Academic Study: some notes for consideration' A paper for the Commission of Professors of Adult Education, International Adult Education Task Force, Hollywood, Florida, USA October 1986

McIntosh, Athalinda J 'International Adult Education', An unpublished paper for the Certificate in Education Course at Brooklands Technical College, Weybridge, 1988

Merriam, Sharan B (ed) 'Selected Writings on Philosophy and Adult Education' Malabar, Florida, Robert E Krieger Publishing Company, 1984

Miyasaka, Kosaku 'Towards the Alternative Adult Education: Beyond the Modern Paradigm' Papers of the Comparative Adult Education Conference, Somerville College, Oxford, 6-9 July 1987

Niemi, John 'What it means to be an International Adult Educator' in Klevins, Chester (ed) 'Materials and Methods in Adult and Continuing Education', Los Angeles, Klevens Publications Inc, 1987, pp 80-84

Rubenson, Kjell 'Research: an International Perspective' Abstract of the International Adult Education General Session II 'Bringing it Home', Newsletter of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education, October 1987 p14

Sork, Thomas J 'Computers and International Adult Education', Abstract of the International Adult Education General Session II 'Bringing it Home', Newsletter of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education, October 1987 p 12

The Job of Managing Adult Education:
A qualitative approach to studying teams in action

A D McMahon, Bradford and Ilkley Community College

Abstract: Imaging qualitative data from the meetings of five adult education management teams yields insight into the content and variation of adult education managerial work.

This report of work in progress describes the use of qualitative methods to understand managerial work in adult education. A year's meeting records of five adult education management teams were analysed to uncover what each team thought its work was. The approach owes much to Mintzberg, who suggested such studies should be done; to anthropologists, ethnomethodologists and sociological thinkers, who explained that constructs derived from the constructs of a society's members can help us understand more about that society; and to qualitative researchers who have described the process of understanding complex social events from data unstructured by pre-set hypotheses. The appended references must serve to indicate the background to this approach, as space precludes a fuller discussion.

Before I present preliminary results from the minutes data, some basic information about the teams is necessary. Centre was the oldest team, founded in 1979. The Adult Basic Education Team convened itself in 1981, the Outreach Team was created with outside funding in 1984. These three are the "established" teams. The South Area Team began meeting informally in 1984, but, with the East Area Team, formally took its place as a team manager in Spring, 1985, when the data collection period for the research I am describing began. All teams both managed adult education programmes and carried them out. Data, including interviews, tape recordings, documents, and a study log, was collected for four terms -- Spring 1985, Autumn 1985, Winter 1986 and Spring 1986.

Team	Responsibility	Classes Aut 85	Fee income Aut 85	Parttime budget 85/6	Members ever serving	Meetings in study year
Centre	AE centre	145	10,400	16,000	8	34
ABE	ABE(city)	40	none	20,700	7	42
Outreach	ABE(city)	20	none	15,000	8	46
South	AE area	90	11,000	16,000	16	23
East	AE area	80	9,700	14,800	16	18

Every group of people who uses meetings invents for itself tacit and explicit structures to get what it sees as its business done. Most team meetings were less formal than their documentation implies, for example, the minute taker in the ABE team meetings was the person holding the minutes book. S/he knew what was on the agenda which was compiled by members' contributions at the beginning of the meeting(all teams but East used these "accumulated" agendas), so s/he usually listed the next item for the meeting to consider. In a sense, s/he "chaired" the meeting. A * indicated that a matter was to be carried over to another meeting. At the other extreme, East Area Team, for at least one term, circulated agendas before meetings, and agreed previous minutes from which came "matters arising" in the usual way.

For this study, a *meeting* is a regular gathering of team members organised by means of an *agenda*, and recorded in *minutes*. *Regular* means at team-agreed intervals of roughly equal duration(usually weekly or bi-weekly). Minutes were typically written during the meeting for the established teams, and preserved somewhere known to the team. Area Team minutes were written afterward, typed and circulated. A ***minute item*** is a numbered entry in a team meeting record.

An item of an agenda represents something that a team member decided was or should be part of that team's work. A minutes entry reflects an agenda item, and may be said to support the appropriateness of the proposing member's suggestion. My analysis of the minutes items is thus several degrees removed from raw managerial work, but some stages of that removal were completed by the teams, not by me. I would hope I was giving names to patterns that already existed but were not explicit.

Taking the team's definition of a minute item has consequences. For example, the recurring Centre item "programme", which contains staffing, facilities, new things, problems, controversies and usually at least two decisions, gets set alongside "kissing bush", a report of funny noises from the shrubbery that the team decided to ignore. For the purposes of this analysis, ***compendium*** items are equal to single items because that's the way the Team decided to record, and usually agenda them. We will return to this later.

The first set of patterns from the minutes coding was this: everything the teams did over the year fell into one of the nine categories below, with an acceptably low miscellaneous. Each category is explained straightforwardly -- coding definitions were more complex.

Planning(pl): investigation and development.
Facilities(f): buildings, equipment, room use, learning resources.
Procedures(pr): ways to get things done(including teamworking).
Staffing and staff(sf): hiring, problems, firing, etc.
Classes(c): reports about how things are going.
External events(e): not intrinsically part of a team's activity.
Training(t): organisation and delivery for parttimers/members.
Publicity(pu): matters taken up to get the provision known.
Miscellaneous(m): unclear items and oddities.
Students(stu): individual learners/student associations.

The relative inclusiveness of the categories made it much easier to talk about work across the teams, and indicates that, perhaps, different kinds of adult education may be more similar in their managerial work than first appears. This apparent agreement helps to justify the second set of patterns -- item frequencies in these categories for all teams, all terms:

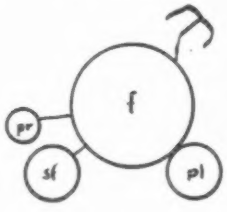
pl	f	pr	sf	c	e	t	pu	m	stu	Items	%
412	330	278	230	157	157	105	76	67	39	1851	
22%	18%	15%	12%	9%	9%	6%	4%	4%	2%		101%

Naively stated, if every adult education manager was like these teams taken together, we would expect just under a quarter of the work to be making plans, and around 40% to be dealing with *facilities*, *staff* and *classes*/reports. 15% of the work would be *external events* and *training*. Another 15% would be spent figuring out how to do all these things(*procedures*).

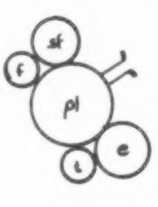
This crude picture obscures differences among the five teams. My third set of patterns is the proportion of minutes items in each category by team

	pl	f	pr	sf	c	e	t	pu	m	stu	items	%
Cen	15	37	10	15	6	3	4	2	5	3	421	100%
ABE	25	10	8	15	7	17	10	2	5	3	567	102%
Out	21	16	18	11	11	4	5	11	2	2	411	101%
S	30	15	23	7	11	6	3	4	2	0	266	101%
E	22	7	30	12	10	10	2	2	4	1	186	100%
All	412	330	278	230	157	157	105	76	67	39	1851	
%	22	18	15	12	9	9	6	4	4	2		101%

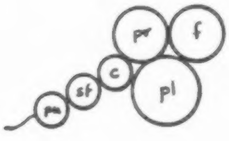
It is easier to understand these results if we use images devised by ordering, for each team, those categories with at least ten percent of item entries in them.



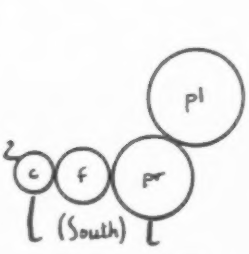
The Centre tricycle, mostly facilities, is pulled by a planning wheel and supported by procedures and staff. Centre managers in adult education, if they are like the Centre Team, are committed to the facility they run; they are less apt to take an interest in activities suggested by the other categories, and even seem to do proportionately less *planning* than other managers.

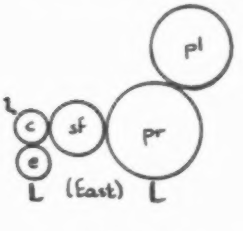


The ABE flying bug moves its fat planning body with staff and facilities wings on one side, and external events and training wings on the other. If all subject area managers were like ABE, their work would display what appears to be a tension between maintainance(*staff, facilities*) and what might be termed development -- *external events and training.* It probably can't fly without both wings.



The Outreach tadpole's three-part head of facilities, procedures and planning is driven by a flapping tail of classes, staff and publicity. If an adult education manager was like Outreach, the work would be more generally distributed across the categories -- a little of a lot of things.

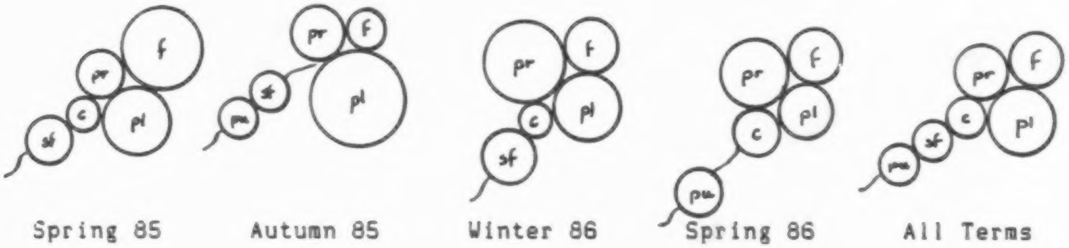




The Area Team poodle has a planning head, a proud procedural chest and a classes/reports rump. What links the forequarters to the hind depends on the team -- South's body is facilities; East's staff. East's thigh is *external events* (*facilities* would have been next); South, if frequencies were high enough, would have had a hind leg of *staff* and *external events.* If an adult education area manager was like these teams, we would expect half the work to be making plans and exploring how to get them carried out(*planning* and *procedures*); a tenth receiving reports on how things were going (*classes*/reports). If s/he ran a centre as well, as South did, *facilities* would take up 15%; if s/he delegated centre work, as East appeared to do, then *staff* would come next.

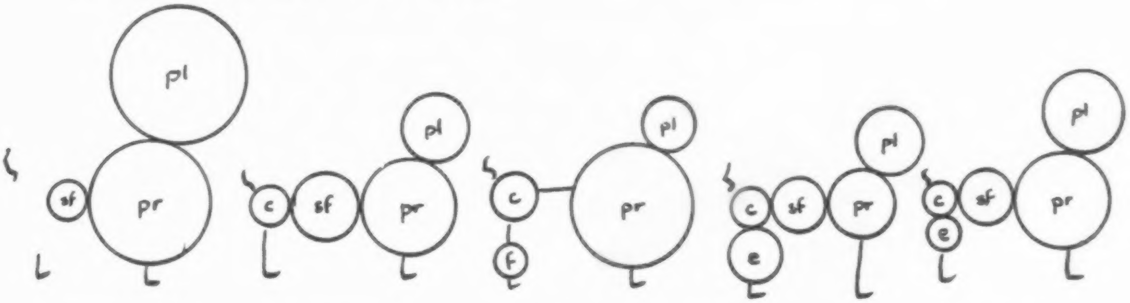
The only two teams with the same brief are like each other and unlike the established teams, suggesting the categorising and imaging might be reflecting something real "out there". Perhaps any newly-convened group will be a *procedure*-chested poodle, spending time finding out how to do things(that South, slightly more experienced, had somewhat fewer procedural entries seems to support this). But perhaps the Area Teams' concern with *procedures* reflects a similarity to Outreach. As an Outreach member explained it: "We're in an innovative, creative area of work. We break all the rules. No wonder we're always trying to work out how to do things." Or, for a third possibility, something about area organising may require prioritising for *procedures*, *planning* and *classes*/reports, whatever else it may include. Poodles may represent Area Team work itself, not the state of development of the Area Teams or the innovative nature of their work. Area of work insights have thus modified our first picture of the activities of our hypothetical adult education manager from the all terms totals above. What s/he works on may well depend on his/her brief, the innovative nature of the job or on how long s/he has been doing it.

Over time, these images change, which brings me to the fourth set of patterns I want to present. First, Outreach:



Spring 85 Autumn 85 Winter 86 Spring 86 All Terms

Outreach keeps its shape all year(as do Centre and ABE), though it loses parts of its tail and changes the emphases of the three major categories, *facilities*, *planning* and *procedures*. For comparison, here is the newest Area Team, East:



Spring 85 Autumn 85 Winter 86 Spring 86 All Terms

The Area Teams vary so similarly that one illustration can represent them both. First, South always has proportionately more *planning* items, East more *procedures*. *Classes*/reports hindquarters disappear in Spring 85 and reappear in Autumn 85 for both. Again for both, bodies disappear in Winter term, when *procedures* grows. The *planning* head for both teams is biggest in Spring 85 then shrinks until Spring 86, when it expands again. Once East's convening term(Spring, 1985) is over, concern with *procedures* expands for both, peaking in Winter, and decreasing to about the size of *planning* in Spring 86. Both add an *external events* thigh in Spring 86.

To test the images, I diagrammed each team in all the others' images. This diminished the images' patterning power except for the Area Teams; the poodle seems to aid tracing changes in activity over terms for both. Outreach comes closest to accepting another team's image -- it almost achieves the poodle if a back leg is added. It is the centrality of *planning* and *procedures* that links Outreach to the Area Teams. The analogy breaks down in the constancy over terms of *facilities* matters for Outreach -- not true of the Area Teams; the absence of the *classes*/reports categories for two terms, which East and South only lose in their convening term(Spring 85) when, logically, there was not much to "report"; and in Outreach's wide distribution of work across categories.

(Three additional minutes item analyses suggested that, first, the Area Teams received more items from managers above them; second, that for all teams, between a third and 40% of all minutes items were "new"; and, third, that the teams mostly made decisions and received reports, though they differed in other options for dealing with items in meetings.)

In sum, we have a list of activities that the teams defined as managing work for adult education. We know something about category frequencies overall and for each area of work -- centre managing, subject specialism, outreach and geographical area -- and we have some indication of how activity varied over the year for each team.

The powerful precedent of the six-year-old Centre team and its way of working should have encouraged uniformity among the teams. Membership overlap, especially between East and Centre, should also have enhanced similarities(though there was no overlap between East and South). Crossteam agreement on what was involved in adult education managerial work was, as I have indicated, substantial. We are perhaps justified, then, in trying to explain differences among the teams, because their setting encouraged similarity.

Some of the patterns may be less important than the frequencies imply. For example, the compendium items used by all teams to deal with, it seems, repeated work(like South and East's "programme" or Outreach'S "class hours") reduce entries in a category like *publicity*. It may be that independent minute items are rather matters the teams did not understand than those they did -- the variation in pattern across terms reflect what each team was trying to understand at the time. Nevertheless, it will probably be useful to explore some of the determinants of pattern variation in the team images.

First, occurrences outside the teams should explain some of the patterns suggested by the images, particularly over time, as the Area Team *external event* thigh in Spring 86 implies. The log kept over the study period is a semi-independent record of these. Two comparisons may well result -- one which compares teams' treatment of the occurrence, and another which excludes these matters and considers all other pattern determinants.

Second, the Centre and Area Team minutes data seems to show seasonal differences -- more *planning* in Spring when the programme is being assembled, more *procedures* (in the case of Centre, *facilities*) in Autumn when the programme starts to run, and a "quiet" period with more *classes*/reports and fewer meetings in Winter while the programme "runs down", to quote a Centre member. Outreach shows less seasonal change perhaps because its classes operate all year round. The relative parity of *planning*, *procedures* and *facilities* in Outreach may reflect the demand outside termtime schedules that work with local community organisations creates -- small programmes many times during the year rather than one big one across three terms.

Third, structural matters may affect pattern determinants. The newest team, East, had an atypical first term, as the cross-term diagram indicates. Log entries say that the team "spent lots of time making it not to do with the Centre" -- a matter of stage of development of the team, perhaps. New members may cause changes in content frequencies too, especially if the team needs to reconvene itself to accommodate significant shifts in membership. The other new team, South, with the greatest membership turnover, will perhaps show differences because of this.

What can this data say about adult education managing work? Are all centres tricyles, all areas poodles? Again, I make three points. First, it does seem reasonable to assume that the work consists of *planning*, *procedures*, *facilities*, and *staffing*, and, to a lesser extent, *classes*/reports, *external events*, *training*, and *publicity*. These categories are raw, just as they came from the coding, and the relationships between them kept as close to the original data as possible. When items inside the categories are compared across teams, it will probably emerge that most of the categories are ongoing maintenance of existing work. *Planning* may well be an attempt to understand what new work might be, and *procedures* partly exploring how to develop and partly how to maintain what is already there. In the codings, matters did move from *planning* once they occurred regularly; sometimes this was marked by the team by its use of a term like "report" or "feedback".

Second, as one might have predicted, an adult education manager's brief appears to affect both what is done and what can be done, if s/he is like these teams.

Third, each team took on a number of projects during the study year, some of which became a part of their on-going work. The scale of work undertaken may demonstrate how much work can be done in adult education, and perhaps indicate the utility of organising adult education through teams.

Can this data say anything about the process of managing? Perhaps some insight into managerial pattern-seeking will emerge. One kind of evidence for this is in compendium minutes items which, when they first arose in the coding process, were more a nuisance than a possible pattern. The teams tended to try to group "new" things with a known set of events to which responses were available. "Why don't we defer the fee discussion till the planning meeting" places fees in *planning*, probably hidden under the compendium "programme"; "if we don't express an opinion about the fee system now, someone will decide for us" places the fee discussion under *procedures* and keeps it an independent item. It should be possible, with the data ordered as it is to see something of this team analysis.

If, all over the United Kingdom, the job of defining managing adult education is left to the professionals so employed, as it largely was to these teams, it is no wonder that the field finds it hard to talk to itself, much less justify the work it does as a whole. Put simply, what is important to a centre manager is irrelevant to an outreach manager: each may be seeing a different part of the elephant. We need to know more about the work of managing adult education, if only so that we can talk to each other.

Indicative references

Belbin, R M (1981) *Management Teams: Why they Succeed or Fail* Heinemann

DES (1987) *Managing College Efficiently* HMSO

McAuley J (1985) "Hermeneutics as a practical research methodology in management" *Management Education and Development* 16(3):292-299

Mee G and Wiltshire H (1978) *Structure and Performance in Adult Education* Longman

Miles M B and Huberman A M (1984) *Qualitative Data Analysis: A Sourcebook of New Methods* Sage

Mintzberg H (1973) *The Nature of Managerial Work* Prentice-Hall

Patton, M Q (1980) *Qualitative Evaluation* Sage

Schon, E (1983) *The Reflective Practitioner* Temple Smith

Stewart R (1982) *Choices for the Manager* McGraw-Hill

Thomason B C (1982) *Making Sense of Reification: Alfred Schutz and Constructivist Theory* Macmillan

Williets D L (1982) "Management and training needs in further and adult education" *Social and Administrative Studies in Education* 4 University of Birmingham

Identifying Factors That Facilitate and Impede Learning to Become Physically Fit in the Worksetting

Patricia A Mc Partland
Southeastern Massachusetts Area Health Education Center

Abstract

This research study examines and compares worksite health promotion programs in five selected companies in order to identify the factors that impede or facilitate learning how to become physically fit in the worksetting.

Background

In an attempt to reduce the high costs of health care as well as to improve employees' morale and productivity, many American companies have recently implemented worksite health promotion activities. By 1990, it is estimated that every major company in the United States will offer some workplace health promotion programs.

Worksite Health Promotion programs encompass several different types of activities including stress management, weight control, physical fitness, CPR, accident prevention, screening programs, smoking cessation, alcohol/chemical abuse, high blood pressure control and medical self-care.

The focus of this particular study is on worksite physical fitness programs. Worksite physical fitness programs were selected for investigation for two major reasons. Firstly, to date, little effort has been made to understand these programs from an educational perspective. Secondly, physical fitness programs were chosen from a range of health promotion programs in order to examine learning in class situations. Physical fitness programs are more likely than other health promotion programs such as hypertension and cancer screening to engage a class of learners on a regular ongoing period. Of all the types of health promotion programs, few tend to be offered in an ongoing group setting. Most activities, such as hypertension screening, involve one or two sessions between the individual employee and the health promotion staff persons. Other programs, such as CPR, tend to be offered only for a limited time span of approximately ten weeks. On the other hand, physical fitness programs are usually provided on a continual year round basis and in a group situation.

The components of the worksite physical fitness programs in the study include: teaching the exercise routines, testing the employees' health, counseling the employees, providing health information and offering both exercise classes and individual exercise prescriptions.

Learning how to master the task of exercising is one important component of the worksite physical fitness programs. From the testing and counseling, employees learn about their current health status, their habits that impede their health and the alternative lifestyles that exist. After learning these aspects, the employees come to recognize choices in the lifestyle that they adopt. They realise that they have control over their lives. They also see how some of their health habits may impede their health.

Learning should be central to worksite health promotion programs. Yet, current studies are not addressing the issue that learning is a critical dynamic in understanding how to create these programs. To date, little systematic research on what factors impede or facilitate learning how to become physically fit in the worksetting have been conducted.

Methodology

This research utilized a qualitative comparative approach to examine work-site physical fitness programs in five selected companies. Using a qualitative approach enabled the researcher to avoid manipulating the research setting and instead document the daily reality of five settings.

Five companies with physical fitness programs were selected for extensive investigation from a list of eighteen organizations all located within a radius of 120 miles from the residence of the researcher. This geographical location was chosen because it would have been too costly to investigate companies outside this area.

The companies were chosen to become part of this study based on the following criteria: 1) the company had to agree to participate in the research project; 2) the company had to conduct the program on site since the focus of this study is on learning in the workplace; 3) all the selected sites had to have their programs in operation for at least three months so that the respondents would have adequate experience with their programs; 4) the sample had to contain a variety of different types of organizations. In selecting the sample, preference was given to obtaining different types of organizations as well as to choosing those companies with model, innovative programs.

The basis for comparing these programs and identifying factors that facilitate and impede learning was the differences and commonalities of programs.

In order to obtain background information for each of the selected companies, the researcher examined both the internal and external official documents such as descriptive brochures and annual reports from each program. This material supplemented as well as validated the data collected from the interviews. It also provided information that could not be obtained from the interviews.

The administrators at all the sites completed a data inventory form which is an instrument that elicits specific factual routine information. Since the data inventory was administered through the mail, a standardized format was used in which every person was asked to complete the same questions. This instrument contained both open and closed ended items.

At every site hour-long interviews were conducted with the Program Adminstrator, Program Co-ordinator and one Instructor. A semi-structured interview approach was used in order to assure that the entire sample was asked the same questions. All the interviews were taped and transcripts of each interview were prepared.

One class of learners at each site was surveyed in order to obtain their perspectives on the fitness programs. Since the selected classes always met shortly after the instructors' interviews, the time that the instructors were interviewed determined which class of learners was surveyed.

In this study, the researcher conducted on site observations at each site. This method was utilized in order to obtain information regarding actual behavior patterns of both the learners and the instructor that could not be elicited from the focused interviews. Observation was the only method of determining how the instructors and the students interacted with each other since they themselves were probably not aware of their behavior. This method also validated the information as to the nature of the instructional process.

A checklist was developed that was used to record the physical setting particularly in regard to safety, the appearance of the learners and in-structors such as whether or not they were relaxed, nervous, enthusiastic or apathetic, instructors' style with respect to instructional format, their response to learners and to their role, and finally learners' behavior such as how they interacted with other learners and the instructor, and whether they asked questions. The program staff and participants were told that observations were being made.

Finally, the fitness class at each company was asked to complete a critical incident instrument. One half of each class was asked to recall the most satisfying event in their learning experience while the other half was asked to recall the most unsatisfying event in their learning experience.

The learners that responded to both the critical incident and to the survey consisted of both males and females and came from a varied socio-economic and educational background, although the majority was well educated and had above average incomes.

In order to analyze data from diverse sources, a matrix was constructed for each company that cross referenced each method used in the study to the following analytical categories: information on the company, program background, program development, organization and administration, program philosophy and goals, learner characteristics, instruction and curriculum, program evaluation and linkages.

This matrix was used to illustrate the extent to which data collected from each method correlate or diverge from data collected utilizing other methods. The common variables that appeared to either enhance or inhibit learning as it related to each category was identified.

The matrix from each of the five companies was examined in order to identify commonalities, problems and exemplary practices. The next step was to combine the data from all four method sources into another matrix. This matrix compared the commonalities, problems and exemplary practices among worksite health promotion programs in the five companies. Though not specifically included in this matrix, the researcher also draws from the literature in the discussion section.

Findings and Discussion

This study's results indicate that several aspects both help and hinder learning about fitness in the workplace as shown in figure I.

FIGURE 1 Factors That Facilitate or Impede Learning

How To Become Physically Fit In The Worksetting

Factors That Facilitate Learning	Factors That Impede Learning
- Getting employees involved	- Lack of employee involvement
- Convenience	- Lack of convenience
- Adequate interaction between the learners and the instructor	- Minimal interaction between the instructor and the learners
- Use prior experience	- Do not use learners' prior experience
- Visible fitness staff	- Part-time coordinator
- Adequate training and communication among staff	- Lack of staff training
- Non-threatening safe environment	- PT instructors not integrated into the program
- Staff focus on lifestyle change	- Restrictive company policies
- Curriculum goes beyond just teaching exercise routine	- Focus only on recreation
- Effective marketing approach	- Inadequate marketing strategy

Company policies and procedures can pose barriers to participation. At every site there is a lack of flextime available to all employees, The production line workers cannot use the facility during the normal workday because they only have half an hour for lunchtime. Participating after work is difficult for many due to child care, car pools and other after work activities. Thus the center really is not accessible to a large segment of the employee population.

At one company, the coordinator rectified this situation by bringing the program directly to the production sites. She instituted a ten minute stretching program right on the production floor. Eighty-five percent of the production workers participate in this program.

Other company policies prevent certain employees, such as temporary personnel from joining the facility. The policy of charging employees can either enhance or impede the usage of the facility. On the one hand, if employees pay they are making a commitment and thus may take the program more seriously. On the other hand, the fee may be a barrier for many, particularly those with lower income.

Inadequate marketing approaches prevent many employees from benefiting from these programs. Focusing on gimmicks and sales techniques has its shortcomings as evidenced by the low attendance at the site that relied only on this approach. These techniques do not consider what the needs, wants, beliefs, attitudes and values of the employees are. It also does not take into account the issues that product distribution addresses such as convenient in-house facilities and flextime.

Another company employs a more successful strategy to recruit employees into the program. There, the director personally meets with the employees and explains the program to them. She really reaches out to them and shows she cares. Futhermore, she makes the program exciting by changing the routine on a daily basis and by using catchy names to describe the course. Another company gets employees involved in the fitness program by having them contribute to the calendar and newsletter. This makes them feel part of the program. Microcomputers are also used in the center as a strong motivation for participants to exercise regularly.

The coordinator at these two sites also recognizes the importance of creating a safe non-threatening environment for the employees. The site where classes are held is attractive, comfortable, clean and safe. Learners have sufficient space to exercise. There are not any obstacles in the way of the exercisers. Adequate heating and lighting are provided. Pictures of beautiful models are avoided. The instructors wear clothing appropriate to the class that is being taught. For example, when teaching a class of older adults, the instructors at both companies wear shorts and T-shirts rather than leotards and tights. The learners are treated with respect. The instructors always give the learners an opportunity to raise questions and to give their opinions. This approach supports Knowles' (1980) views regarding the importance of establishing a warm learning environment both in the physical and psychological dimension.

Thus, using the personal approach, creating a safe environment, getting employees involved and bringing the program to the employees are effective ways to get employees to take part in the program on a regular basis. Other effective approaches include brochures and open houses. While participation is essential if the employees are to benefit from the worksite health promotion program, it is not the only way for them to learn about fitness. Just because the employees may not be involved in the program does not necessarily mean that they are not learning about fitness. They may be involved in a club or some other activity outside of work. Also, even if they are taking part in a worksite program the level of learning may vary considerably. If employees are to change their lifestyle, the curriculum needs to go beyond teaching them just the exercise routines. The content of the program should contain several other components such as testing, counseling and health education. These different components play an important role in learning. Testing is an effective way of enabling employees to learn about their current health status as well as what habits need to be changed in order to improve their health.

Since the previous experience of learners can be either an important resource or barrier to learning, it is essential that it be determined. The learners' previous experience can be assessed during the counseling session that is conducted at every site. The program should then be based on the results of this assessment.

Since one of the overall purposes of the companies' investment in the fitness center is to improve employees' health and decrease health costs, the program needs to have a health focus. The employees should be educated as to the importance of exercise and nutrition. A bulletin board containing health education materials should be put up in the fitness center as well as in other areas of the company such as the cafeteria. Special seminars and lectures could also be arranged. Articles on health could be printed in the company's newsletter.

The staff needs to be well-trained since they play a crucial role in the quality of instruction. They should have an awareness themselves on how habits impact health. The part-time instructors should be part of the program. At one company in the study, part-time instructors are not integrated into the program. As a result, the quality of the instruction is poor at this site. Part-time instructors should attend regular staff meetings and should interact with each other as well as with the coordinator. Carefully planned staff development programs that include part-time instructors should be implemented. By providing such opportunities, they will begin to feel more like part of the center.

Summary

Several factors were found to impede learning in the workplace such as lack of employee involvement, company policies, corporate culture, lack of staff training and communication, the curriculum and instruction as well as the organization and administration. A well-trained, coordinated staff that uses effective marketing techniques and employs sound curriculum and instructional approaches as well as shows genuine concern for the employees can do much to improve the quality of learning that is occuring in those programs.

References

Knowles, Malcolm. The Modern Practice of Adult Education
Chicago, 1980.

REVISITING LEARNING STYLE THEORY AND PRACTICE

Catherine Marienau[1] and Thomas Loesch[2]

Abstract. The pilot study reported here provides preliminary data on the fluidity and adaptability of adults' learning styles, as well as information concerning the relative congruence of two diagnostic instruments measuring constructs of learning style. The study is exploratory to a longitudinal project investigating the theoretical foundations of learning style research and practice.

BACKGROUND

A central debate in educational circles concerns whether and to what extent instructional strategies should be matched to students' preferred modes of learning in order to facilitate individual development as well as student achievement and satisfaction.[1,2] To date, research on this question is inconclusive and confounding.[3,4] With dozens of diagnostic instruments currently available, we suggest that certain prior steps need to be taken before such practice issues can be resolved.

First, the constructs of different instruments need to be studied to determine whether they measure similar characteristics, and whether these are interrelated or independent. Second, it must be determined whether learning styles are a stable dimension of the personality or, if they are fluid, under what conditions they change. Third, the adaptability of different learning style types to the demands of different learning environments needs to be understood. Fourth, it is important to examine to what extent students' learning styles influence their choice of various learning options.

This paper describes an exploratory, pilot project that is the first phase of a five-year longitudinal study designed to address these issues. The setting is DePaul University's School for New Learning (SNL), an individualized, competence-based baccalaureate program for adults. Two established instruments which provide profiles of learning style are being administered to all students upon entry to and graduation from SNL. A detailed questionnaire also is being used to collect data about why students select different learning options as well as students' perceptions of the influence of learning styles on these choices. Using a cross-sectional design in the pilot phase, the Learning Style Inventory (LSI)[5] and Learning Preference Inventory (LPI)[6] profiles of 38 incoming and 60 graduating students were collected. The questionnaire was given to a cohort of 40 of the graduating students.

This report consists of three parts. The first part discusses the congruence among the characteristics measured by the LPI and LSI instruments. The second part compares the profiles of the two student groups and discusses similarities and differences. Finally, qualitative data for the cohort of graduating students are presented which provide an initial impression regarding the relationship of learning styles to the selection of learning options.

[1] DePaul University [2] University of Illinois at Chicago

WHAT CHARACTERISTICS DO THE LPI AND LSI MEASURE?

Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (LSI) has been categorized as an instrument measuring cognitive or information-processing style.[7,8] In contrast, Rezler's Learning Preference Inventory (LPI) has been labelled as a diagnostic instrument measuring the learner's preference for different types of instructional environments.[7,9]

Kolb's LSI measures how much the learner relies on four different learning modes that comprise a four-stage experiential learning cycle. These modes of learning are represented by four scales, which are described below.

Concrete Experience (CE) involves an approach to learning in which the learner emphasizes personal involvement with people, relies on feelings, and is open-minded to new situations. In *Reflective Observation* (RO) the learner attempts to understand ideas from different viewpoints through observation and relies on objectivity, thoughts, and feelings to form opinions, without necessarily taking action. *Abstract Conceptualization* (AC) involves the use of logic and ideas, rather than feelings, to understand problems, with the learner relying on systematic planning to develop theories to solve problems. *Active Experimentation* (AE) involves experimenting with practical means to change situations, and emphasizes getting things done rather than observing.

According to Kolb, different learners start at different stages of the cycle which these approaches represent; effective learners are able to use each stage when appropriate. A learner may, however, rely on certain modes more heavily than others. The combination of modes the learner relies on most is used to calculate his or her learning style type. The four types, Diverger, Assimilator, Converger, and Accommodator, will be discussed later.

Rezler's Learning Preference Inventory (LPI) measures the degree of preference the respondent has for different learning situations and consists of six scales. Scores reflect the learner's most preferred to least preferred tastes for the dimensions described below.

The *Abstract* (AB) scale represents the degree of preference for learning theories and generating hypotheses, with a focus on general principles and concepts. The *Concrete* (CO) scale represents to what extent the learner prefers to learn tangible, specific, practical tasks with a focus on skills or hands-on learning. The *Teacher-structured* (TS) scale provides a measure of the individual's preference for learning in well-organized, teacher-directed environments, with expectations, assignments, and goals clearly identified. The *Student-structured* (SS) scale indicates the degree of preference for learning via student-organized tasks with an emphasis on autonomy and self-direction. The *Interpersonal* (IP) scale measures preference for learning or working with others, with an emphasis on harmonious relationships. The *Individual* (IN) scale represents the degree of preference for learning or working alone, with an emphasis on self-reliance and solitary tasks.

Statistical analysis using Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients yielded several significant correlations among scales of the LSI and LPI. For both incoming and graduating students, Rezler's *Abstract* scale was positively correlated with Kolb's *Abstract Conceptualization* scale and negatively correlated with Kolb's *Active Experimentation*. Conversely, Rezler's *Concrete* scale was positively correlated with Kolb's *Active Experimentation* scale and negatively correlated with Kolb's *Abstract Conceptualization* scale. These four scales are the only ones for which correlations were significant *and* in the same direction for both groups.

One might have expected that Rezler's Concrete scale would have been positively correlated with Kolb's Concrete Experience scale. The finding that the two scales were negatively correlated raises the important issue of the language used in diagnostic instruments. For example, the word "concrete" may vary greatly in meaning from one instrument to another. Nearly every one of the 12 items contributing to Kolb's Concrete Experience scale employs the word "feeling" or some idea related to it. The 15 items contributing to Rezler's Concrete scale are constructed to emphasize doing and application. Analysis of Kolb's Active Experimentation scale shows that it, too, is comprised of language emphasizing activity. Similarly, both Kolb's Abstract Conceptualization and Rezler's Abstract scales deal linguistically with the realm of ideas and theories.

The analysis provided here deals with only two learning style instruments. Considering the plethora of other instruments on the market, such analysis is important to building a unified theory of learning style, since the labels assigned by various diagnostic instruments may confuse rather than illuminate our understanding of the characteristics they measure.

STUDENT PROFILES

Mean scores and standard deviations were calculated separately for the LPI and the LSI. Profiles on the LSI were markedly similar for both incoming and graduating students. Comparable results were found in these two groups' profiles on the LPI.

For the Rezler LPI, all students expressed the greatest preference for Concrete learning experiences, followed in order by Teacher-structured, Student-structured, and Individual learning. The Abstract and Interpersonal scales received the lowest mean scores. While incoming students scored significantly higher on the Interpersonal scale than did graduating students, this did not affect the rank order preference for the scales.

Mean scores for the Kolb LSI's Abstract Conceptualization and Active Experimentation scales were the highest, followed by Reflective Observation and Concrete Experience. There were no significant differences between groups.

The finding that the profiles for incoming and graduating students are so similar suggests that learning styles, at least as measured by these two instruments, may be relatively stable. Given the nature of the SNL curriculum, with its emphasis on self-direction and student autonomy, we might have expected, for instance, that graduating students would be more

Student-structured than new students. Our five-year longitudinal study, with its pre-test/post-test design, should provide more conclusive data concerning change in individual learning styles.

WHAT IS THE RELATIONSHIP OF LEARNING STYLES TO THE SELECTION OF LEARNING OPTIONS?

A cohort of 40 of the graduating students responded to a 10-item questionnaire. Responses to three questions are reported here: (1) students' willingness at the onset of their programs to try unfamiliar learning experiences; (2) the actual learning options they did pursue; and (3) how information about their learning styles influenced their selection of learning options.

Kolb's LSI classifies learners according to one of four types. Divergers utilize Abstract Conceptualization and Active Experimentation approaches to learning. Assimilators combine the approaches of Abstract Conceptualization and Reflective Observation. Convergers rely on Abstract Conceptualization and Active Experimentation. Accommodators combine the Concrete Experience and Active Experimentation approaches.

Respondents were first classified according to their LSI type, then their responses were subjected to content analysis. We then calculated the Rezler LPI profile for students within each LSI category. Our ability to generalize is limited given the small number of students within each type, but patterns did emerge which warrant further investigation.

Divergers (n=9) view concrete learning situations from many points of view and observe rather than take action. Respondents in this category expressed the least willingness among the four types to try new learning experiences at the beginning of their programs. Divergers pursued a variety of learning options, most often independent studies followed by SNL courses. Divergers reported that they were influenced by knowledge of their learning style and selected options they perceived as matching this style.

The Divergers in this cohort expressed the greatest preference among the types for Teacher-structured learning environments as measured by Rezler's LPI. They also expressed a decided preference for Concrete learning experiences and a definite lack of preference for Abstract learning experiences. Divergers' choice of courses seems congruent with this learning preference pattern, as does their selection of documentation of prior learning and independent study options which allow them to emphasize concrete and practical applications of their learning.

Assimilators (n=15) are interested in abstract ideas and concepts, are less interested in people, and demonstrate the ability to create theoretical models. Among the four types, Assimilators expressed the greatest willingness to try new learning situations, selected from a wider variety of options, and reported being especially comfortable with independent study. One-third of this group said their choices were not influenced by knowledge of their learning style.

Assimilators were relatively neutral on all but two of Rezler's LPI scales. Slightly less than one-half expressed a low preference for Interpersonal learning situations, while more than one-third expressed a high preference for the Individual scale. Assimilators' willingness to explore a variety of learning options makes sense in light of their relative neutrality toward different learning environments. Their preference for independent study fits with their high preference for the LPI's Individual scale.

Convergers (n=9) characteristically find practical uses for ideas and theories and like to deal with technical problems rather than interpersonal ones. Convergers in our sample were evenly divided between being only somewhat or not willing to try unfamiliar learning situations at the onset of their programs, and were the most likely to intentionally select options informed by their learning styles. One-half selected options to match their style, while one-third intentionally selected options which did not match their style.

On Rezler's LPI scales, Convergers expressed the greatest preference for Concrete and then Teacher-structured situations. They expressed a definite lack of preference for Student-structured and Interpersonal learning. Converger's attraction to SNL courses may be double-sided. On the one hand, these courses are structured by the teacher, which is consistent with their expressed preferences on the LPI. At the same time, SNL courses are experientially-based and interactive, thus allowing Convergers to learn in their least preferred situations.

Accommodators (n=7) learn primarily from hands-on experience, from carrying out plans, and rely on people for information rather than on their own technical analysis. This group expressed the least willingness to try new learning situations at the onset of their programs. Of the four types, however, they were the most likely to do both independent study and documentation of prior learning. They were the least likely of the groups to be influenced by their learning style, and the most likely to be influenced by situational factors such as time constraints and scheduling.

On the Rezler LPI, this group expressed a definite preference only for the Concrete scale. On all other scales their scores were neutral, except on the Abstract scale, which they appear to disfavor. This learning preference profile is consistent with the Accommodator's penchant for the practical.

These results suggest an even stronger coherence between characteristics measured by the LSI and LPI than was indicated by the statistical data. Although Kolb's LSI is typically thought of as an information-processing style inventory, the varying combinations of its four scales (i.e., the learning style types) in effect provides a measure of preference for types of learning situations quite similar to those measured by Rezler's LPI.

SUMMARY

On the basis of these preliminary data alone, our initial assumption that it is premature to debate the issue of matching instruction to students' learning styles is supported. First, it is essential to conduct more careful analysis of the constructs different instruments purport to measure. Our analysis, for instance, shows that a "concrete" learner in Kolb's interpretation is not the same as one in Rezler's view.

Secondly, much work needs to be done to examine the fluidity and adaptability of learning styles. This study, while cross-sectional in design, does not support the contention that learning styles change. While we cannot rule out the possibility that they do, it may be that greater, conscious interventions to change students' styles are necessary to achieve this outcome.

Whether or not learning styles change, our study suggests that students with different learning styles may vary in their degree of comfort with unfamiliar learning situations and, quite possibly, in their motivation to pursue learning in new ways. Our results suggest that different types of learners utilize knowledge of learning styles in different ways. Furthermore, we see some indication that students with different learning styles vary in their inclination, or perhaps ability, to adapt these styles to different learning situations.

REFERENCES

[1] Even, M. (1982). Adapting cognitive style theory in practice. Lifelong Learning. 5(5), pp. 14-16, 27.

[2] Dixon, N. (1985). Implementation of learning style information. Lifelong Learning. 9(3), pp. 16-18, 26-28.

[3] Foley, R. (1983). Instructional methods and media. In C. McGuire, et al. (Eds.). Handbook of Health Professions Education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

[4] Mentkowski, M. & Doherty, A. (1982). Careering After College: Final Report to the National Institute of Education. Milwaukee: Alverno College Productions.

[5] Kolb, D. (1985). Learning Style Inventory. Boston: McBer.

[6] Rezler, A. & Rezmovic, V. (1981). The learning preference inventory. Journal of Allied Health. 11, pp. 28-34.

[7] Curry, L. (1983). Learning Style In Continuing Medical Education. Ottowa: Canadian Medical Association.

[8] Cornett, C. (1983). What You Should Know About Teaching and Learning Styles. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.

[9] Loesch, T. & Foley, R. (Summer, 1988). Learning preference differences among adults in traditional and nontraditional baccalaureate degree programs. Adult Education Quarterly.

ACTION LEARNING: A TRANSFORMATIVE EXPERIENCE FOR MANAGERS?

Victoria J. Marsick, Assistant Professor
Adult & Continuing Education
Teachers College, Columbia University

Abstract:

This study describes Action Learning in the Management Institute, Lund, Sweden, and explores whether or not it is transformative for managers. Action Learning has a dramatic impact on some managers, particularly when personal and professional change are linked. Factors that seem key to change, and possibly to transformation, include broadening of perspectives and frames of reference, framing and reformulating problems through active experiments, reflection and critical reflection, and the powerful effect of teamwork.

Action Learning

Action Learning is best articulated by Revans (1971, 1982) who found that he could train people more effectively by helping them learn from and with one another while tackling real-life problems, often by working in teams. He noted that people develop "questioning (Q) insight" when facing complex problems in the future, while "programmed (P) knowledge" was helpful only when tasks were repetitive and dependent on the past.

Action Learning is designed to foster "Q insight." It is based on the old adage that people learn best from their experience. At its core is work in small project teams on actual problems in companies or business divisions other than those familiar to the participants. Each program typically has from 15 - 20 participants and runs from 35-45 days spread out over 8 to 12 months. Experience alone is not sufficient for learning. Facilitators help the groups learn from both the task at hand and their own learning process. Managers also frequently bring into the group problems they are having back-home. Project work is supplemented by seminars on management topics.

In MiL, project teams are not encouraged to simply reflect on the problem and "do reports." For example, one project team found that Headquarters (HQ) of a consumer cooperative was not giving full authority to their storekeepers to decentralize. HQ blamed the storekeepers who they said "have no courage" and said "there is no limitation -- only the law" -- to actions storekeepers could take. The group helped storekeepers do some experiments. They ordered a competitor's beer and "asked this company to come with their horses and wagons, put them outside the store, got the storekeeper on the horse," and took photographs for the company's newsletter. The project team helped the company sort out and learn from the consequences.

The Research

Action learning purports to enable managers to develop their own theories of leadership and management. The researcher's hypothesis is that Action Learning does not just "add" knowledge and skills, but that it is, in some way, transformative. The researcher draws on Mezirow (1985), who suggests that people organize learning around meaning perspectives, integrated psychological structures with dimensions of thought, will and feeling. People can learn within the same meaning scheme, learn new meaning schemes, or transform their meaning schemes. The researcher defines transformative as enabling managers to see themselves in a fundamentally different way than usual. For this to happen, managers must get outside their customary frames of reference and examine values and norms underlying their actions, a process often called critical reflection. For managers, transformation is both personal and social. While changes may be unique to the individual, they are social in that perceptions are shaped by organizational norms which these managers can maintain or change.

The question addressed is thus whether or not Action Learning achieves any transformation, and if so, in what ways and how. The study is qualitative, uses open-ended interviews and draws on grounded theory by keeping open to unanticipated themes. In this first phase of this exploratory study, the researcher interviewed 12 staff members and 8 managers. In addition, sessions were observed in three different MiL programs: the opening day of a Swedish MiL program, the middle "project revision" sessions of an internal program, and the closing day of a shorter program for senior executives.

Preliminary Findings

It is too early to determine if these changes are transformative. Nonetheless, the program had changed some managers both personally and professionally in a very deep way, as discussed here.

Personal and Professional Development. MiL had a key impact on personal development, which was linked with professional development. For example, one manager said "that this was probably the biggest milestone in my life. The change during this process was quite intensive." One facilitator explained, " MiL's concept compared to other schools in Sweden is more on the personal development side . . . ." A mid-program personal development seminar is probably MiL's most highly-rated feature. A shorter weekend is frequently held with spouses, demonstrating a belief that the manager's professional life cannot be fully separated from personal life. Interviewees indicated the placement of this activity was critical to its success. If it had stood alone, it would have been seen primarily a sensitivity training experience. But in the middle of the program, managers indicated they had built trust with one another that enabled them to gain deeper insights, take more risks, and subsequently build on these insights.

One's Own Theory of Management. Managers are expected to build their own theories. One of the most widely reported changes was a shift toward building and working through teams, as for example:

> I had a tendency to be very direct, . . . and I still am . . . . And, two years back, I implemented (decisions) without putting too much interest in whoever might be around and whoever might feel stepped aside . . . . now I try to get it done by other people, and having them convinced that it is the right thing to do.

This manager created a non-hierarchical product planning team even though staff felt uncomfortable in working that way. Another manager ran the teambuilding exercises he learned with his own top team, and then subsequently with other levels of teams in a "kind of snowball effect that is affecting a big organization." A third manager joined company-wide project teams which he did not do before the program.

Problem Re-Formulation. Many management programs focus primarily on problem analysis. MiL helps people to frame problems, and to examine issues that arise as implementation takes place. The project team typically reinterprets the problem. One problem, for example, was defined as a desire to "go from selling electricity to an energy service company." The company believed their local level workers had to learn to interact differently with customers, but as the team interviewed staff at many levels, they redefined it as a higher-level difficulty between the marketing and distribution divisions.

Frequently, the problem also has more to do with misperceptions and inappropriate actions of people, such as the person requesting the project, even though the problem was first defined as a technical problem. For example, in one project, the problem was defined as developing strategic plans in "a rather small company that was selling courses, technical (courses) in the engineering area." The new CEO was changing the organization from a small, centralized family-run business to a decentralized one. But the team realized they had to tell him "that you're working too much with words, in writing papers to your group, organizing everything. You have to be more a leader, taking positions, making your will more flesh and blood."

Giving feedback to high-level project hosts is not always successful. In one case, the project host "was kind of sitting, preventing real communication between . . . the different other actors on the scene in this company's product area." The group talked with his superiors, although he warned them not to do so, but the superiors were unwilling to force the project host to do things differently. The facilitator concluded, "That was about two and a half years ago, and today the company is in big troubles, just because they didn't dare to challenge or upset him." He also noted that while a failure on the surface, the project generated significant learning for the group.

Reflection and Critical Reflection. Action Learning is designed to help managers become more reflective on their experience, not just in the task-oriented, problem-solving way they might do to solve crises, but in a manner conducive to challenging one's own taken-for-granted viewpoints. One manager noted: "you have to face the future, you have to take the blinders off. And this seminar is one way to take the blinders off." One way in which this was done was to enhance perspective by getting outside of the situation. One manager noted, "the problem is that when you are sitting in a company, you are so involved in the process, so it is very hard to get a helicopter view of the process by itself." He pointed out that ordinary work situations are often like "working in a labyrinth, you have to be able to lift yourself up from time to time to get perspective."

The unfamiliar environment of projects minimizes automatic responses and encourages managers to challenge assumptions. Staff often take journeys, literally and figuratively, to make the environment even more unfamiliar. One took managers to the theater and had them interview the actors. He then had them dramatize for the actors their understanding of what they heard, thus surprising both actors and managers. Many staff plan trips within Sweden, and sometimes to other countries, which are left somewhat open-ended, often creating anxiety for trainees used to being guided toward clear-cut tasks. This simulates the uncertainty of general management tasks. Trainees must plan the trip as they encounter new experiences, and then process what they have learned and relate their insights to management.

Some managers reported they could deal more effectively with uncertainty and challenge their own and others' viewpoints. One manager noted: "Very often, more than before MiL, very often to question . . . myself, to put questions to myself 'why.' 'Why am I working like that today? Why is my organization . . . like this today?' That is new for me." However, another facilitator noted he wasn't sure his project team, employees in an in-company program at a fairly low level in a traditional hierarchy, could fully understand what enabled them to challenge their CEO. He asked them, "How come you dared to do that? . . . They couldn't think of the reasons why they could do that. They could perfectly well see that this is (pause), this is unbelievable, and we have been doing the unbelievable, but how comes?" He paused dramatically as he told the story and said he asked them "would he (the CEO) 'bite' them? And I don't think it was actually only symbolic, but it was also meant, in a way, quite literally. Bite!" he said dramatically. Elsewhere in the interview, this facilitator indicated these employees had literally grown up in the company, with generations of their forefathers employed by the same firm. An in-company program does not help people get outside their perspective in the same way as do projects fully outside the employee's environment.

Maximizing Differences. The program maximizes differences in both the project groups and activities to help managers see issues from multiple frames of reference. As one facilitator put it, many managers "have a way of thinking and way of talking and way of discovering which is narrow. And . . . they are not giving themselves enough width experiences. And they are not taking the chance to communicate with youth, with their kids, with their wife, or with persons that have another point, another language, another way to see." Program design confronts this problem And yet, all managers did not agree about the reality or value of differences in their project groups. Perhaps the Swedish value around consensus interferes with comfort with conflict.

Many facilitators designed activities to maximize differences in perspective. For example, one Program Director arranged for managers to visit a community with a culture and tradition very much different from the mainstream. He had them interview five different groups and then role play what they found for the community. The project facilitator also plays a key role in helping people identify and understand different points of view. For example, one facilitator talked of interviews early in the program "at an insurance company in Stockholm talking with the top executive . . . ; I had a group of three persons. And after an hour of asking questions, I saw the group was just bewildered . . . " Instead of letting the interviewees leave when the group finished with their questions, the facilitator asked the interviewees to "just sit for half hour and listen to the group. Then I asked the group to tell each other what they thought of the kind of information they had gotten so far." The interviewees were not allowed to interrupt. "So they realized that they were role playing or acting." By unmasking the roles, the facilitator was able to open the conversation to seeing things from different points of view.

Conclusion

From this first phase of research, the author cannot generalize about the large-scale success of Action Learning as a means for transformation, particularly with such a small sample. Findings provide clues as to "best case" examples of what Action Learning can achieve, contribute to understanding of the way in which adults learn from experience, and shed light on effective means for facilitating critical reflection in the workplace.

Action Learning does seem to have a dramatic impact on some managers, particularly when personal change is not separated from professional change, and when both are linked with the feasibility of change within the organizational culture. Managers and facilitators alike discussed the importance of organizational factors on doing things differently, e.g., time required for fundamental changes, impediments of size and of bureaucracy, degree of support from the highest levels of the organization, and the organization's values and culture. Factors that seem key to transformation include broadening of perspectives and frames of reference, framing and reformulating problems through active experiments, reflection and critical reflection, and the powerful effect of learning within a team.

References

Marsick, V. J. (Ed.) *Learning in the Workplace*. Beckenham, Kent, U.K.: Croom-Helm, 1987.

Marsick, V. J. "Learning in the Workplace: The Case for Reflectivity and Critical Reflectivity," *Adult Education Quarterly,* in press.

Mezirow, J. "A Critical Theory of Self-Directed Learning," in S. Brookfield (Ed.), *Self-Directed Learning: From Theory to Practice.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass: 1985.

Revans, R. *Developing Effective Managers.* New York: Praeger Pub., 1971.

Revans, R. *The Origins and Growth of Action Learning.* Lund, Sweden: Studentlitteratur, 1982.

A TEST OF TINTO'S MODEL OF ATTRITION: AS APPLIED TO AN INNER-CITY ADULT LITERACY PROGRAM

Larry G. Martin, Associate Professor
University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee

Abstract

This study sought to determine the applicability, and explanatory power of Tinto's model of attrition as applied to an inner-city adult literacy program. Fourteen variables were identified which explained 25.86 percent of the variance between completers, persisters and dropouts.

Research on dropout in adult literacy programs seeks to identify the differentiating characteristics of those who dropout or persist in order that a better match can be developed between the learning needs of particular students and the environments and experiences of the educational programs. Because, studies of attrition investigate the interaction between individuals and the social system of the learning program, one of the most troubling aspects of the research is the identification of the most relevant variables which contribute to the variance observed between persisters and dropouts. Also, studies vary in their identification of the dependent variable. In adult literacy programs--where students can arrive with a high degree of readiness to complete the programs in a short period of time, e.g., four to six weeks--the dependent variable can define several categories of behavior (e.g., dropout, stopout, transfer, persistence, and/or completion) any combination of which could be the focus of an investigation.

Recent theoretical writings on persistence/withdrawal in postsecondary education have offered parsimony and focus to this area of inquiry previously characterized by a lack of a coherent and interrelated body of knowledge. The purpose of this study was to determine the applicability, and explanatory power of a theoretical model for residential college students developed by Tinto (1975) as revised and applied to a large nonresidential, inner-city adult literacy population.

Theoretical Framework

Tinto (1975) developed a longitudinal model of dropout which focuses upon the specification of the conditions under which dropout occurs (e.g., academic and social malintegration) and upon the delineation of the student's background characteristics that account for the variation of differing types of dropout behavior among differing individuals.

Tinto argues that a positive causal relationship exists between institutional characteristics and dropout. Since dropout is the outcome of a multidimensional process involving the interaction between the individual and the institution; it is the characteristics of the institution--its resources, facilities, structural arrangements, and composition of its members--that place limits upon the development and integration of individuals within the institution and that lead to the development of academic and social climate, or "presses", with which the individual must contend.

Individuals enter academic institutions with a variety of attributes and family backgrounds each of which has direct and indirect effects upon performance in the academic program. More importantly, these background characteristics and individual attributes also influence the development of the educational expectations and commitments the individual brings into the program. It is these goal and institutional commitments that are both important predictors of and reflections of the person's experiences and his/her disappointments and satisfactions in the academic environment. Given individual characteristics, prior experiences, and commitments, the model argues that it is the individual's integration into the academic and social systems of the program that most directly relates to his/her continuance in that program and which lead to new levels of commitment.

Frequently, events in the social system external to the academic program can affect integration within the more limited social and academic systems of the program. It is suggested that those effects will be best observed through the person's changing evaluations of his/her commitments to the goal of program completion and to the institution in which he/she is participating. Additionally, the model views costs and benefits to be both direct and indirect and to include social as well as economic factors. Therefore it states that individuals will direct their energies toward activities perceived to maximize the ratio of benefits to costs over a given period of time. For example, the student friendships and faculty support which result from social integration can be viewed as important social rewards that become part of the person's generalized evaluation of the costs and rewards of attendance and that modify his/her educational and institutional commitments.

Tinto's model assumes the subjects are residential college students who have satisfied college admissions standards and seek to complete a four-year degree. As such, they would be attending school as a primary responsibility, and would have no other primary commitments. These assumptions do not apply to the adult student attending an adult literacy program. These students usually attend open-entry non-residential academic programs and seek to either improve their literacy skills for enrollment into educational/training programs or to obtain a GED. However, they share with the college student, especially the non-residential college student, the notion of entering an academic institution and adjusting their behaviors and expectations to the academic environment of the institution.

Research Design

The study employed a longitudinal design with two data collections during the academic year 1986-87. The 183 students attending an adult literacy program in a non-residential community college were contacted during the second week of the fall term and asked to participate in the study. All of the students present completed a short questionnaire/consent form asking them to participate in the study, to provide telephone numbers, and to indicate the time of day during which they could be contacted. Of those 148 (80%) who agreed to be interviewed, 115 (77.7% of those who agreed) were successfully contacted and interviewed via a telephone survey. The survey instrument was comprised largely of five-item factorially derived Likert-response scale statements adapted from the research conducted by Pascarella et al. (1983). Pascarella et al. (1983) tested the applicability of Tinto's model to a commuter college setting. With only minor modifications, the questionnaire items they developed appeared to be applicable to an adult literacy setting. The telephone survey assessed students' expectations about a variety of aspects of the adult literacy program experience, and collected selected background information. After eight months, 59 students (51% of those initially interviewed) were successfully contacted and administered a follow-up telephone survey. The follow-up survey was largely adapted from the original survey, but did include some new items, such as information about the drop-out decision.

The Sample

The initial sample of 115 subjects was comprised of a majority of women (72%) and minorities (85%). Nearly all of them were unemployed (98.3%) and a majority (61%) were receiving public assistance. A series of twelve chi-square and seven t-tests were computed to test for differences in responses between the 59 subjects who constituted the final sample and the 56 subjects who were not interviewed during the follow-up stage of the study. These tests showed no significant differences (at the $\underline{P} < .05$ level) between the two groups, except: the follow-up group had significantly higher income and were older than the initial group. Of the 59 subjects included in the final sample, 27 (45.8%) completed the program (i.e., received a GED or passed an entry test to attend a training program) 14 (23.7%) dropped out, and 18 (30.5%) persisted in the program.

Variables

Four different constructs were identified: 1. background characteristics (i.e., family background, individual attributes, years of schooling); 2. intitial and subsequent academic and social integration; 3. initial and subsequent commitments (i.e., commitment to the goal of GED attainment and commitment to the adult literacy program) and 4. withdrawal decisions.

Each background characteristic was operationalized as follows: years of school completed included highest grade completed and hours of reading before attending the program; individual attributes included sex, race, age, and income;

family background included level of mother's and father's education, marital status, number of persons in the home, and number of children under age 13. The initial goal commitment was measured on a five-item Likert scale item measuring the perceived value of the GED and the importance of other goals. The initial institutional commitment was measured on a Likert scale item measuring the extent to which the student believed he/she made the right choice in enrolling in the program. Academic integration was operationally defined as the sum of nine variables: four five-item factorially derived Likert-scale items measuring a student's perceived level of intellectual development and of faculty concern for quality classroom teaching and student development; two dichotomous variables measuring the frequency of initial contacts with faculty of 10 minutes or more to discuss either course related matters or the academic program. Three items determining the student's grade level of reading, hours of reading per week, and amount of home work per week were also included. Social integration was operationally defined as the sum of six variables: four Likert-scale items measuring a student's perceived degree and quality of relationships with peers and informal non-classroom interactions with faculty; and two dichotomous variables measuring the frequency of non-class contacts with faculty of ten minutes or more to socialize informally or to discuss a campus issue or problem. Subsequent social and academic integration, and goal and institutional commitments were collected on the follow-up instrument and were operationally defined in the same manner as in the initial instrument. Withdrawal decisions were obtained on the follow-up instrument.

Data Analysis

Principle components analysis was employed to determine the factor structure of four sets of social and academic integration variables obtained from the two surveys. The number of factors retained for rotation was determined by the Kaiser criterion (an eigenvalue of 1.0 or greater), and the meaningfulness of the factors. To obtain uncorrelated factors with the simplest possible structure, an orthogonal rotation using the Varimax procedure was utilized to reach a final solution. Only those variables with a loading of .30 or greater were used to define a given factor.

Standardized factor scores were used to compute new variables. For example, ORGDISS was a variable computed from the responses to the follow-up survey regarding the extent to which the subject engaged in program and course-related discussions with the instructor: [(C46 * .86) + (C47 * .88)]. Thirteen new variables were created from a total of 30 item responses.

Results

The SPSS (1986) discriminant analysis program with stepwise variable selection was used to identify the most significant discriminating variables in each of three data sets. First, eleven background variables were entered into a discriminant analysis--four were selected for entry into the analysis which produced one significant function with an eigenvalue of .19 and a canonical correlation of .40. Second, eight variables obtained from the initial survey were entered into a second discriminant analysis--six were selected for entry into the analysis which produced a single significant function with an eigenvalue of .38, and a canonical correlation of .52. Third, eight variables from the follow-up survey were entered into a third discriminant analysis--four were entered into the analysis which produced one significant function with an eigenvalue of .39, and a canonical correlation of .53.

Table 1
Summary Statistics: Discriminant Analysis

	Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients	
Independent Variables	Function 1	Function 2
ORGDISS (discuss prog.) (II)	.444*	.151
LEARNEF (learning effort) (II)	.388*	.023
INSTKNO (inst.'s knowledge) (II)	.341*	-.032
GED Important (II)	-.318*	.016
GED Important (I)	-.301*	.126
Yrs. of Education	.273*	-.200
ASSEINS (inst.'s knowledge (I)	.227*	-.210
Age	-.091	.544*
CLASINA (student friends) (I)	.065	-.460*
Other Goals Important (I)	-.096	-.293*
Made Right Choice (I)	.213	-.292*
TEACADV (teacher's advice) (I)	-.221	.280*
Race	-.160	-.279*
Children under age 13	-.040	.220*
Canonical Correlation	.67	.53
Significance	.022	.223

The fourteen variables identified from the above discriminant analyses were entered into a fourth discriminant analysis using a forced entry procedure. The background variables were entered first, then the initial survey variables and lastly, the subsequent survey variables. This analysis produced a single significant function which discriminated between those persons who completed their goals for attending the program and those who either dropped out or remained in the program (Table 1). A second non-significant function was produced which discriminated between those who remained in the program and those who dropped out. Collectively, both functions correctly classified 75.86 percent of the cases: prior probabilities were set at .5. Therefore, the analysis explained 25.86 percent of the variance in completion, persistence, and withdrawal behavior.

Discussion

With several modifications, Tinto's model appears to have been effective in facilitating the identification of those variables which contribute substantially to predicting completion, dropout, and persistence in adult literacy programs. The variables explained 25.86 percent of the variance compared to similar studies by Garrison (1985) in which 22.1 percent was explained, and a direct test of Tinto's model by Pascarella et al. (1983) which explained 23.9 percent.

The data summarized in Table 1 permit several observations. First, background variables, that is age, race, children under age 13, contributed more significantly to differentiating between dropouts and persisters. Dropouts were more likely to be older, members of minorities, with more children under age 13. Completers were more likely than either persisters or dropouts to have completed higher levels of education.

A second observation concerns the role played by the model's emphasis on person-environment fit: academic and social integration. As shown in Table 1, positive responses on three subsequent academic integration variables and one initial academic integration variable contributed significantly to discriminating completers from the other groups. However, persisters were more likely than dropouts to indicate positive initial academic and social integration.

A third observation concerns the role of the goal and program commitment variables. Negative responses on both initial and subsequent goal commitments to the GED distinguished completers from the other two groups. Completers, tended to be committed to other academic goals, such as passing entrance requirements for a postsecondary technical training program. Positive responses regarding initial commitments to other goals, such as skill employment, distinguished dropouts from persisters. However, persisters had more positive responses to initial program commitment than dropouts.

References

Garrison, D. R. (1985). Predicting dropout in adult basic education using interactive effects among school and nonschool variables. Adult Education Quarterly, 36 (1) 25-38.

Pascarella, E. T.; Durby, P. B.; and Iverson, B. K. (1983). A test and reconceptualization of a theoretical model of college withdrawal in a commuter institution setting. Sociology of Education, 56 (April) 88-100.

SPSS X: User's Guide (1986). Chicago, IL: SPSS Inc.

Tinto, V. (1975). Dropout from higher education: A theoretical synthesis of recent research. Review of Educational Research, 45 89-125.

RESULTS OF A DELPHI STUDY:
PUBLIC HEALTH EDUCATION IN THE YEAR 2010

Martha Milk, University of Minnesota

Abstract: This study used a combination of ethnographic futures interviews and the Delphi technique to ask a selected group of American public health leaders about their views on the future of health education. The purpose of this study was to demonstrate a model for proactive planning through participants views on changing roles, trends, future issues of concern and future methods of educating the public.

A Review of Health Education and Futures Research Literature

The following literature review introduces the reader to the purpose of futures research and then provides a description of the method used for this study. Since this study is a future study related to health education, the literature review also provides a brief description of health education as well as a description of how it has changed over the past few decades. The main purpose for providing this review of the literature is to demonstrate that other writers see the changes in society and how they are impacting on the profession and these writers also see that new directions are needed.

Introduction to the Study of the Future. Futures research, Enzer (1983) stated, is concerned with understanding long-term social conditions, their prospects for change, and the direct or indirect consequences of these changes. Enzer believed that futures research is concerned with the study of alternative futures, not with predicting what will occur.

Toffler (1974) explained that the ultimate purpose of introducing futurism into education is not to create images of the future, but to help learners cope with real-life crisis--to strengthen the individual's ability to anticipate and adapt to change. Toffler argued that in a fast-shifting environment individuals must know more than how to receive and sort data, they must have the opportunity to make change or to fail in the attempt. Toffler felt that it is a prime task of education to help make individuals more sensitively responsive to change.

The Delphi as a Method of Futures Research. Hill and Fowles (1975) stated that virtually all futurists and a surprising number from the public-at-large recognize the Delphi technique to be a laudable attempt to systmatize what has traditionally been unsystematic and haphazard and so to meet the ever-growing need to anticipate the future. Hill and Fowles described the Delphi method as a procedure for polling a panel of respondents concerning the likelihood and probable date of occurrence of supposedly future events. The respondents are mutually anonymous and are questioned over several rounds by mail.

Delphi Studies in Health and Education. Sullivan and Brye (1983) conducted a Delphi study to predict future trends and roles in nursing. They concluded from their study that the Delphi has considerable use in curriculum planning.

Carlaw et al. conducted a Delphi study on the future directions and manpower needs of eight states in the upper Midwest for the year 1990. The principal purpose of their study was to obtain a profile of the knowledge and skills required to address major public health issues in the future.

Rossman and Bunning (1978) conducted a Delphi study to assess the knowledge and skills which will be needed in the future by adult educators. They included 141 university professors of adult education in their study. They saw four unique merits to using the Delphi. (1) It avoids specious persuasion, leadership influences and hidden agendas; (2) it allows a variety of individuals to participate equally, even though widely separated by geography; (3) several studies have shown that the Delphi has remarkable accuracy; (4) it provides a documentation of a precise nature which includes minority opinions.

Definition and History of Health Education. The Thirty-sixth World Health Assembly in 1983, defined health education as any combination of information and education activities leading to a situation where people want to be healthy; know how to attain health; do what they can individually and collectively to maintain health, and seek help when needed.

An evolution of health education policies as articulated by the World Health Assembly over the past 30 years has shifted the emphasis from central to local planning; from singular (specific disease) to diverse objectives; from building health literacy and skills in support of specific programs to promoting a holistic educational approach to problems; from focusing on individual behavior change to a concern for organizational, economic and environmental factors conducive to healthy life-styles, self-reliance and political action for health promotion.

Rubinson and Alles (1984) commented on the role of health education throughout history. They stated that health education could be criticized for being reactionary--that is for providing education in areas after problems have been identified. But, health education has consistently attempted to meet the pressing health and social needs of the nation and individual communities.

Changing directions for public health education. Breckon, Harvey & Lancaster (1985) asked where the profession of health education is going. They believed that there will be increasing roles for the health education professional. They envisioned an increase of entry level skills and an expansion of health education in many settings. They believed that more health care and health education will be delievered in homes and in ambulatory care centers; that technology will increase and in fact provide a base for a resurgence of health education in schools; and that there will be new formats for health education to expand and flourish.

St. Pierre and Shute (1984) believed that how well the profession adapts to future needs will dictate the future of health education. They believed it important for health educators who are entering the field to develop an interest in the study of the future so that they will be better prepared to serve their clientele and to exert some control over the present.

Method of investigation

This study combined two methods of data gathering--ethnographic futures research (EFR) and mailed Delphi rounds. In this study these two methods are modified and combined to form the Ethnographic Futures Delphi. In an Ethnographic Futures Delphi the EFR interview is used as round one of the Delphi. The responses from the interviews are categorized and summarized according to the probe topics and then used to develop the multiple choice responses for the mailed Delphi questionaires.

The panelists in a Delphi study are typically chosen for their recognized expertise in the field. The seventy-seven panelists of this study were chosen because of their leadership in national public health organizations or public health related organizations or because they were referred by national leaders. Participation in this study was by invitation.

Twenty-seven panelists agreed to participate in the entire study. (See table below for actual participation rate). Another fifty persons agreed to take part only in the mailed questionaire portion of the study.

PARTICIPATION

	ROUND ONE	ROUND TWO	ROUND THREE*
Interviewed group	27	26	(19/26
Written questionaire	0	45/50	(37)/45
Total number of participants	27	71/77	(56)/71
Percent	NA	92%	(79%)

* All questionaires have not been returned as of this date

Results: In the first round those interviewed discussed their most optimistic, pessimistic and most probable views of the future in relation to public health, health education and the continuing education needs of health education providers for the year 2010. Following is a summary of the trends related to health education which they indicated supported their optimistic, pessimistic and most probable scenarios.

Trends: Health Education (optimistic):
--many of the programs in this country are heading towards health promotion, in schools of medicine and schools of public health greater emphasis is being placed on health promotion
--too much emphasis is placed on individual behavior to the exclusion of environmental controls and the organization of the health care delivery system
--in the last ten years we've actually seen some success in the area of behavioral health or health promotion
--there has also been a trend in health education research to assess the effectiveness of health education programs in a number of different areas.

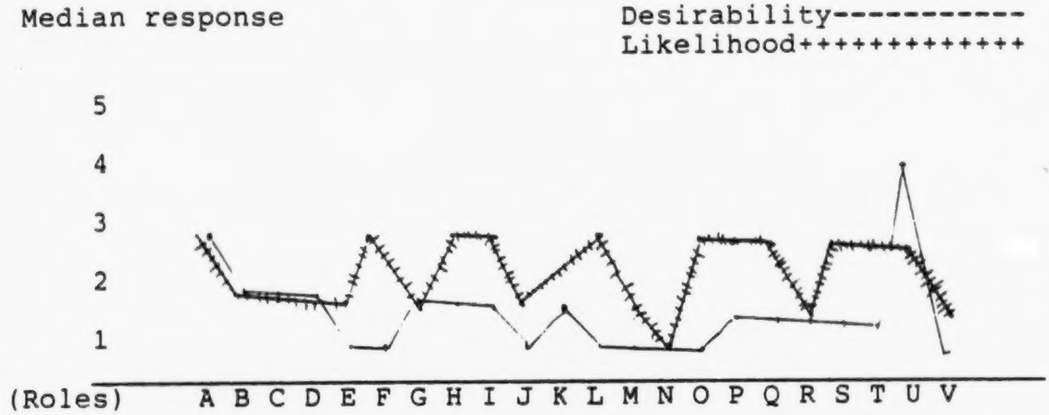
Health Education Direction (pessimistic):
--the voluntary agencies are going to continue to develop campaigns geared to the people who give them money and to those segments of the population that they think they're going to get the most change; and the hard to reach will still be hard to reach because we are going headlong into the future geared in all of our public health notions toward middle America.
--AAHE is proposing an international credo for health education focused on individual behavior, this whole thing on individual behavior is like blaming the victim, the whole empahis now is on individual behavior;
--there is a trend toward trivializing the teaching of adolescent social skills; there is a trend to mass media everything rather than work on actual skill development, this trend relates to the tendency in our culture to oversimplify.

Health Education (most probable):
--we're seeing people in all sectors providing health education services; health education is becoming more commercially based;
--the federal government has recently made a fairly strong commitment to health education of kids, mostly through the schools;
--health educators are taking separate routes in how they relate to people, some want to empower people with new skills or with taking charge of their own lives, and there are others who want to legislate and mandate;
--roles are changing, more people will be doing health education and the health educators role will become more specific, we are seeing the beginning of the need for all professions to be doing health education and health educators are needing to be there as resource people to those other professionals.

Existence of a Profession in 2010: In the second round of the Delphi participants expressed their views on the existence of a health education profession in 2010 and responded in the following way:
25%--there will be a profession, but it will be very different,
54%--there will be a profession but it will change somewhat,
12%--there will be a profession but it will be pretty much the same as it is now.

Roles and Functions: Participants in Round 2 also responded to questions on the likelihood and desirability of several roles for health education. The chart below demonstrates the relationship between participants hopes and desires about the future and their belief in the likelihood of occurrence of each of the options. The scales used on the questionaire were from 1-5 with 1 highly desirable and 5 highly undesirable on the Desirability scale and on the Likelihood scale 1 was virtually certain and 5 virtually unlikely.

As you can see the participants found most of the items to be both desirable and certain and ranked most on the positive end of the scale.



The handouts you have recieved provide information from Round 3 of the Delphi on participants views on the issues of importance to health education in 2010, and their views on strategies and methods to provide health education to the public in 2010..

Significance of study

This study offers some new alternatives to old practices. The study challenges professionionals in the field of public health, health education and adult and continuing education to see the new possibilities, to consider alternative ways of doing things and to face tomorrow prepared for its challenges.

This study demonstrates a process which can be used for proactive planning. The model is not meant to be used in isolation but rather as a part of a planning process in which the Ethnographic Delphi Technique is used as a tool for eliciting views of the future.

This study represents the thinking of leaders in the field of public health. Participants were not a random sample of the field. They represent themselves and their responses are indicative of what they, as one group of public health leaders, feel about the future of health education as it relates to the total field of public health. The results of this study are but one alternative scenario in the array of possible options. In planning programs this method can be utilized again and again. It is the hope of the author that the results of this study will be considered as future alternatives, that the desires and interest of these public health leaders will be analyzed and evaluated, and that this study and the ideas expressed in it will engender further study on the future of the profession.

REFERENCES

Breckon, D. J., Harvey, J. R. , & Lancaster, R.B. (1985) Community health education. Rockville: Aspen systems Corporation.

Carlaw, R. W., Kralewski, J.E., Stauffer, L., & Dornblaser, B. (1986). Perspectives on the future role of public health. Public Health Reports, 101(1).

Enzer, S. (1983). New directions in futures mmethdology. New Directions for Institutional Research, 39, 69-84.

Hill, K. Q. & Fowles, J. (1975). The methodological worth of the Delphi forecasting technique. Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 7, 179-192.

Rossman, M. & Bunning, R. (1978). Knowledge and skills for the adult educator: A Delphi study. Adult Education, 28(3), 139-155.

Rubinson, L., & Alles, W. F. (1984). Health education: Foundations for the future. St. Louis: Times Mirror/Mosby College Publishing.

St. Pierre, R. W. & Shute, R. (1984). Future issues in Health Education. In L. Rubinson & R. Shute (Eds.), Health education: Foundations for the future (pp 231-256). St. Louis: Times Mirror/Mosby College Publishing.

Sullivan, E. & Brye, C. (1983). Nursing's future: Use of the Delphi technique for curriculum planning. Journal of Nursing Education, 22(5), 187-189.

Toffler, A. (1974). The psychology of the future. In A. Toffler (Ed.), Learning for tomorrow: The role of the future in education (pp 3-18). New York: Vintage Books.

World Health Organization (1983). New Policies for Health Education in Primary Health Care.

AN ASSESSMENT OF CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM AND THE UNITED STATES: HOW UNIVERSITIES ARE INFLUENCED BY THEIR RESPECTIVE CULTURES

KATHERINE MOSER, PH.D.
University of Houston-Clear Lake

Abstract: The purpose of the research presented in this paper is to provide information and insights about current societal influences in the United Kingdom and the United States, and how these influences affect continuing professional education in a university setting.

The investigations and findings presented in this study are of value to university educators who are involved in the interpretation and implementation of an area of adult education which is directly affected by societal influence. Considering that international adult education has generated an increased emphasis among those in the field, it has become expedient to gain knowledge on how and why commonalities and contrasts exist.

Reviews of adult education literature reveal numerous parallelisms between the United Kingdom and the United States, particularly during the beginning phases (Axford, 1969). While these parallels in liberal arts education continue along a similar path, other facets of adult education in these countries have taken a decidedly different direction. A major dissimilarity which has subsequently developed is the subject of continuing professional education (CPE): 1) its significance; 2) its effectiveness; 3) the justification of university involvement; and 4) providing that the validation of justification exists, what would be an appropriate participatory role in a university setting.

Continuing professional eudcation has garnered an established and increasing interest in universities in the United States (Baskett, 1986; Belsheim, 1986; Moser and Seaman, 1987; Cervero, Rottet, & Dimmock, 1986; Grabowski, 1982). Concurrently, in the United Kingdom, adult educators have continued to debate the justification of CPE as a part of adult education in the constructs of a university's mission (Jarvis, 1985; Paisley, 1985; Stock, 1980).

By reviewing the the literature, it is possible to obtain an inferential understanding of the emerging and conflicting philosophies surrounding CPE. However, in order to procure a perception of the veritable principles from which these conflicts evolve, a direct experience with adult educators in their own cultural environment was deemed essential. Consequently, the issues which are explored in this study are the product of firsthand encounters with the adult education ethos prevalent in the United Kingdom circumambient CPE combined with observations of the practices and philosophies currently existing in the United States.

In addition to review of current related literature, the data presented in this paper was obtained by the researcher upon conducting comprehensive personal interviews with over seventy-five adult educators at nine major universities located throughout Britain, in 1986. These universities included: 1) The University of Birmingham; 2) The University of Bristol; 3) Cambridge University; 4) The University of Hull; 5) The University of Leeds; 6) The University of Manchester; 7) The University of Nottingham; 8) The Open University; and 9) Oxford University. Compilation of data in the United Kingdom and the United States also involved: 1) observation of university adult programs; 2) interaction with graduate adult education classes; and 3) professional activity interaction. Therefore, the methodology for this study employed a grounded theory research approach which provided a framework utilizing both formal and substantive theory constructs. This allowed the researcher to explore and develop relevant topical catagories. Within these categories, relationships were defined, discussed, and illustrated by the data used to generate them.

Upon analysis of the data, the results revealed strategic commonalities and differences among adult educators in the United Kingdom and the United States about CPE in a university setting. Findings emerged into three significant categories: 1) origins of adult education and its relation to the current emphasis on continuing professional education; 2) present attitudes of adult educators and their acceptance or non-acceptance of CPE as a valid facet of university education, including recent trends on how universities have become involved with continuing professional education; and 3) current economic and political factors which impact the issue of continuing professional education in a university setting. Data collection by these methods afforded the researcher the opportunity to explore explanations and study the social processes through social collectivism in two nations, each with a strong commitment to education.

Whereas the consensus among adult educators in the United States define continuing education as a function, or a subset of the broader term, "adult education," many British counterparts draw a marked theoretical distinction. This definitional difference has been extended to the actual implementation of educational practices. Traditionally, British education for adults has been deeply rooted in the liberal arts. Consequently, CPE has been termed *post-initial* education. British educator, Peter Jarvis (1985, p. 67), noted the dissimilarity in these two types of adult education by stating that continiuing education must be recognized as a term "with a more restrictive connotation...as opposed to liberal adult education."

While the origins of adult education in Britain and America began in a analogous manner, in the early 1900's, the redefinition of the university extension program in the States signaled a shift from traditional university course offerings to subject areas which would answer the needs of the current student population. This redefinition founded the precedent which encompassed CPE as synonymous with adult education.

Historically, British educators have concluded that the primary mission of university adult education (UAE) is to provide adults an opportunity to expand their horizons by enrolling in university extension courses in liberal arts education. However, more recently, the British Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education made an attempt to broaden this idea by issuing a discussion report entitled *Towards Continuing Education*. According to this document (Stock, p.3), "...*post-initial* education would include occupational training and education, traditional 'liberal' adult education, general academic education, role education and others..."

Consequently, the validity of continuing professional education has been debated by adult educators on both sides of the Atlantic. The argument that higher education has compromised the classic academic philosophy by the justification of CPE could be made, thereby resulting in an inferior educational process. Conversely, the issue that universities exist to educate individuals in scholastic pursuits which have a relevant impact has emerged.

Since CPE has been an accepted education praxis in the United States, it has manifested in a present ethos which consists of the adult educator promoting university research and implementation of practical university programs. This thrust has been apparent by an increased emphasis on: 1) university and private sector research projects; 2) university and business training (education) partnership; 3) university and corporate advisory teams; and 4) university research concerning the effectiveness of CPE in various professions (Moser, 1984).

Comprehensive interviews with adult educators in the U.K., which were conducted as a part of this reserach project in 1986, indicated a continuing reluctance to recognize CPE as relevant in a university's mission. While this is the dominant opinion, some British educators have been rapidly incorporating innnovative CPE as an integral part of their UAE program.

A relatively recent shift in attitude in the U.K. could be attributed, in part, to current economic and political factors. The research in this study yielded an impression which must be initally stated; there exists a tradition lacking a predisposed political philosophy which has been unilaterally adopted by the British educators. Therefore, in universities, a forum for an unbiased examination of various political ideologies has seemed to prevail. Without predispositions, a wide diversity of political ethos has developed in combination with a lack of inhibition concerning open discussion of these ideologies. Therefore, education is approached without regard to any specific bias.

However, this is not meant to imply that social and political forces do not impact education. More specifically, the current political climate in the U.K. appeared to have created a direct effect on British UAE. The present economic situation and political orientation have underscored the need for a shift in focus from the traditional liberal arts education for adults toward a pragmatic, job-related approach, thereby resulting in an increased emphasis on CPE. During interviews which were conducted as a part of this study, the preponderance of adult educators in British universities expressed a degree of opposition to this approach.

As previously discussed, CPE became an accepted aspect of a university's mission at the turn of this century in the United States. Considering that CPE is not presently undergoing philosophic academic scrutiny in the United Stateds, CPE has continued to proliferate. Therefore, the concept of CPE is not generally questioned by adult educators; rather, issues such as its effectiveness have been targets of investigation.

With the postulation that American adult educators predominantly have given credence to CPE, perhaps the American social and political orientation should be addressed. It may be assumed, generally, that the capitalistic philosophy is presupposed in the American educational system. Given the predispositon toward a particular social and political ethos which has fostered linkages between educational values and economic expediency, the outcome has resulted in a perpetual prominence on CPE.

In summary, this study evidenced the following issues in continuing professional education: 1) who decides what is academically relevant, university scholars, or the existing populations' educational needs; 2) can educational relevancies be considered academically valid in a university setting; 3) does traditional academic elitism take precedence over developing educational needs; and 4) if evolving educational needs, such as continuing professional education, can be considered academically valid, what criteria should be used to scholastically justify these concerns.

REFERENCES

Axford, R. (1986). Adult education: the open door. Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Co.

Baskett, H.K. (1986). Knowledge utilization in social work practice: toward a substantive theory of professional learning. Proceedings of the 27th Annual Adult Education Research Conference, 27, 13-18.

Belsheim, D.J. (1986). Organizing continuing professional education: a comparative case analysis. Adult education quarterly, 36(4), 211-225.

Cervero, R.M., Rottet, S., & Dimmock, K.H. (1986). Analyzing the effectiveness of continuing education in the workplace. *Adult education quarterly,* 36(2), 78-85.

Grabowski, S.M. (1981). Continuing education in the professions. In Grabowski (ed.) *Preparing educators of adults,* (pp. 84-93). San Francisco: Josey-Bass.

Jarvis, P. (1985). Question of continuing education. *Papers from the 15th Annual Standing Conference on University Teaching and Research in the Education of Adults.* University of Leeds: United Kingdom, 15, 67-73.

Moser, K. (1984). An assessment of industry's training resources and their desired involvement with educational institutions in the southwestern part of the United States. (Doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University, 1984).

Moser, K. and Seaman, D. (1987). Implications for potential linkages between buisness-industry and higher education. *Adult education quarterly,* 37(4), 223-229.

Paisley, R. (1985). Continuing professional education - a comparison of industrial and academic perspectives. *Papers from the 15th Annual Standing Conference on University Teaching and Research in the Education of Adults.* University of Leeds: United Kingdom, 15, 67-73.

Stock, A. (1980). *Adult education in the United Kingdom.* National Institute of Education: Leicester, United Kingdom.

LEEDS FOR DIALOGUE: POEMS

Jane Munro, University of British Columbia, Canada

Change agents

Here is an eighty year-old man
who's lost his shell,
the milk from which he fruited,
whose house went up in flames,
and with his house, his wife of forty years.
A pale man with two plastic hips
and the sweetest intention.
If you could see him
you would hesitate to speak of change.

In the small purse of silk
the caterpillar is transformed:
the vital organs, gradually destroyed,
becoming furled wings:
but the hungry, adventuring worm saves nothing.
If you could help the old man
with gifts or information,
would you share that time with him,
teach him to manage?
What do you think another pair of hands,
a different way of viewing could do?
He will never again hold her in his arms.
The bed she made and the house he built,
will never re-emerge.

Change choses agents and so does death.
Learning still occurs in parts
but I do not know
if this man can master life alone,
no matter what instruction we offer.
Solitude is a land on the other side
of a desert. Stones for company
and meditations for drugs.
With what teacher would a person set off on such a journey?
The woman who burned to death,
who said "simplicity becomes more and more complicated"?
She had a passion for basic principles.
Her agency was a kind of rudimentary thanksgiving;
many changes flowed from that:
much teaching flowed from that.

I drank the green coconut milk
from which nut, seed, palm and harvest
might have come. Is it time
to sacrifice the personal
for the grand mosaic, for the commonplace?
Or, watch the game of education vs fate? Still,
hoarded treasure burns with us.

The old man may not accept care,
but we try to share so as not to lose
generosity. Teachers practice generosity
and are blessed in this with luck.
Our poverty is clogging up
with grief and fear and greed and resentment:
things that choke out our ability.
Responsibility,
when I imagine eighty years
is all but gone, or overpowering;
--must be to end up empty.

Carnegie Centre

Downtown, at the intersection of Skid Road,
China Town, Little Japan, and the docks,
the old library has swallowed these streets.
Ten thousand people climb its worn steps on certain days.
The granite building shudders like a subway station.
One night hundreds rattle up the elevator
to the third floor, and straggle through an art gallery
where a poet in black with a dramatic turquoise necklace
articulates above the hubbub, speaking of
Mexico, architecture and full grocery bags
on the back seat of a station wagon.
It's difficult for her.
Several times she asks the organizers
if they can't do something about the noise,
the transient audience. One of the women jokes back:
"It's better than reading on a street corner!"

The adult education centre is a classroom off the art
gallery. Frustrated by our gracious education,
its aureate diction, and my own limits,
I think about cultural suicide and cultural capital:
think about the embarrasment of being classbound.
I wonder if I've got the guts and imagination
to teach illiterate adults, here, in my own city.
Wanting to hide for awhile, I walk around the classroom,
reading paragraphs titled:
  "What Adult Education Means To Me."

  "I think I'm having a sexual relationship with my mind."

  "In the first place, I only came here because Linda swore
  she'd kick me twice around the block if I didn't get my
  ass down to Carnegie."

  "The tutors are real helpful. Some people learn to read
  and then work here."

And more. I can't help it. I feel the tears coming.
What the hell am I doing in this room

outfitted with out-of-date books,
crowded with tables and chairs--learning centres
where adults can begin to read?

I cannot imagine
living in this city as an illiterate
though I know thousands of my fellows do.
Before this granite monument was a community centre
my mother used to take me downtown on the tram
to borrow books from the library.
We'd trudge alone up the stone stairs to its top floor,
above the museum with the Egyptian mummy.
I'd choose a pile of stories after touring the circuit
of indoor windows with scenes from fairy tales,
and whisper to the librarian who'd stamp my card.
Some days, I'd gobble every book at one go;
no t.v., and lots of rain.

When you don't think you can save souls,
or redirect a nations' history, is it necessary to espouse
poverty in order to cross class barriers?
Anything that comes through me
will reek of all I've consumed.
Gandhi's genius was knowing how to teach
amid ordinary lives: on street corners.
What's the point of education that moves me
into more and more rarified associations?

I think I should sit on the floor of Carnegie Centre
and beg for conversations,
hat in hand. I should sit and learn stories again.

Sainik Farm

Two labouring women in a lane
do plies, perfect as a ballerina's,
as they pick up a line of bricks, one by one,
until each carries nine in a tower on her head.
Not one brick rocks as the women bend
to add the next, or walk barefoot across rough gravel.

The lane winds between fields that are fenced off
because this is where the army conducts experiments
in growing foodstuff to feed its troops. The fields
look full; grain stands overflow the band of fences
like breasts rounding above a tight bodice. Below them,
the ditches are clean, dry, and weedy: shot with flowers.

It is very odd to walk through the chill mist of a
December morning, sandals slapping up the dust, so close
to Delhi and see only these two women at work. The fields
are uninhabited. On the bus, windows were broken and I drew
an end of cotton saree across my eyes to filter the soot.

At stop after stop, men clambered on and off--more off.
When we came to the last stop I asked a boy,
"Sainik Farm?" Dogs ran in circles under the trees.
He pointed. I started walking, not sure what a
Centre for Participatory Research In Asia would look like.

I follow the lane until it peters out
before several huts in a yard
where a goat, two children, and some chickens play.
At nine o'clock, the researchers arrive by car.
A man lights a fire and makes us tea.

Knowledge as a source of power and control,
knowledge either acquired
or generated at the grass roots level: field work
is their goal. A small platoon of investigators
took a census of "invisible" pavement dwellers: thousands
living on the streets in Bombay. They did the study--
from interviews to publication--in six weeks.
The findings went to the pavement-dwellers, arming them
for their fight against a city which had ordered
their tents bulldozed, their families dispersed.
The findings are oral, translated into half a dozen
languages and talked about, as well as written.

A man tells me about this, and other
projects: hugging trees, Union Carbide and Bhopal,
training village activists, books he's helped to write.
Two women show me their publications. They run
a publishing house in one of the adobe huts.
Under no circumstances do they reduce a budget.
If one agency won't fund the whole project,
they beg for a top-up from another.
I ask where the growing edge is in this field,
what they think will come next. One says
people will begin to recognize
they are responsible
for their own development--that it can't come
from copying outsiders.

I like the energy with which they talk--
like grain in the hand, wells dug, ovens bricked:
sweat and contact and loaves multiplying.
They are alone, that's all--out here,
with bird songs. And their effect ripples
round and round the globe.
Often, in my mind, I walk
those twisting country miles back to the city bus:
thinking with my heart. The dictates
of dissertations, of theory, of time frames--ballets
in which we dance to ensure a living--fall away.

Taking things into their own hands

Ghosts line up behind the screen of a man--
his father, his father's father, his mother, hers--
their arms clog the channel of his wrists
like rice in irrigation ditches. Their finger tips surface
like green seed heads fuzzing the outline of his hands.

Because the light is outside and shines on him
you see his skin as solid and believe the heft of his bicep
inhabits his sleeve. But now and then, through the closure
of today, a birth strains, a perfect image
wet and hungry from behind the screen,
and the stage is suddenly backlit so you see how transparent
a man is. Or, a woman. A woman
providing today's face for a congregation.

Education, on the cut surface, treats the whole
like rubbing a cut apple with a cut lemon, to keep it white.
Advisors on development contend with the trees
who watch their fruit, but also with the pips in its core.
When Maria, public health nurse from Nova Scotia
at work now in New Guinea, examines babies
in one of her forty villages, the communities turn out.
The invisible court behind Maria accepts bows
from the host in whose court these infants grow.

It is the custom here for women to lactate all their lives.
Twins are divided between mother and grandmother,
the runt going to the older breasts. Maria has a twin,
Moira, whose hands in hers lift the tiny bodies.
There are pair after pair of newborns where the weaker
will not survive. Her Uncle Moses, Moses Coady: Cape Breton
priest and leader in the Antigonish grass-roots social
rights and adult education movement, comes to mind as Maria
lines up the thick and'thin babies on a table.
It is not a simple matter of explaining.
Maria, and her background, argue
with the village elders and all that's handed down.
Wrestling with angels. Re-naming what's been known
so it becomes something else. It's not
that they've never noticed. Nor is providing solutions
enough--grandmothers garden while mothers nurse:
divide the work, not the offspring--the hard task
is to shift values: from favoring the strong
(thinning seedlings) to nourishing each equally.

It's a four-day walk from the road to this village.
Maria leaves to go home without knowing what the outcome
of her work will be. When she returns to Cape Breton's
cold forests by the Atlantic, she can smell
the tropics behind her, and feel a host of warm hands
who have engaged her. Such throngs we bring to our meetings!
The women of New Guinea nurse their babies in East Margaree.

There's never a last act, a final curtain,
where all who've played a part emerge. The closet dramatists
are shy. You do not applaud the ghosts who try
your imagination, patience, humour
as they take the plot into their own hands
time and time again--flicker and whisper about any subject.

The traces they leave
bind educators and learners. At home, the illusion
of shared reality comforts us--convention
confirms we've learned how to act. Like modern childbirth,
research is conducted as if the saftey
of findings can be preserved
by forced isolation and doctoral investigation.
What is lost when a woman's hands are strapped down
during delivery? When a father cannot hold
his infant streaked with blood, naming him
amidst the shock of such change?
In our research, have we the equivalent of cloud chambers
to track the presence of these ghosts?
Have we even begun to understand the depth of lives?
You, you imagine, make up your own mind
and scoff at superstition--but does your survey
of the literature include the stories you told yourself
about who you were, and are, and what you're doing?
Usually, what we report
is what appears to fit an ideal picture.
How well do our conventions serve the field?
Truth is the most illusive, and intimate,
and destablizing experience. We who would propagate it
deal in prediction and control. To harvest
the powers in any event, we need rituals that call
more into question. Reaping the surface skims
fat from the milk for butter, ignores calcium for bones.
In New Guinea they have banned baby formula, saying human
milk is best for humans. While we regard
tv's, computers, tapes and satellites,
which is to say: human understanding
in all its humble and haphazard
modes of production enlarges human wisdom.

The Development of the Human Resource Developer: A Comparative Analysis of Three Case Studies

John A. Niemi
Professor of Adult Education
Northern Illinois University

ABSTRACT

Case studies are presented of selected graduate programs with an HRD component in Canada, England, and Finland. A comparative analysis of these programs reveals a common guiding principle that stresses the individual's ability to relate to reality as a basis for action. Other similarities are discussed.

Introduction

In the United States, the role of the human resource developer gained national prominence with the 1983 publication Models of Excellence by the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD). The purpose of this prescriptive competency study is to examine the role of the human resource developer in the field. That purpose is addressed through an analysis of fifteen roles accompanied by a supporting body of knowledge that includes 31 competency (knowledge/skill) areas. For graduate programs in human resource development (HRD), the report furnishes direction for counseling students and a framework for program design. However, this behavioral approach is not the only starting-point for graduate HRD programs in the United States. In 1981, ASTD sponsored a conference on the academic preparation of HRD practitioners. The 21 papers presented were published as a book entitled Models and Concepts for T & D HRD Academic Programs. In the introduction McCullough (1981) stated:

> The papers embrace the unique interdisciplinary aspects of HRD; the special respect HRD gives to the adult learner; and the synergistic relationship between the academic community and the real world. p. i

The thrust of my research is away from the American context and toward exploring the preparation of HRD personnel in graduate programs at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (University of Toronto), Canada; the University of Surrey, England; and the University of Helsinki, Finland.

Methodology

The methodology employed in this research is the case study. The use of this qualitative methodology is essential for obtaining a holistic grasp of the elements of the three graduate programs. Each study examines the program by means of three strategies: observation, interview, and document analysis. At the completion of the case study, a comparative analysis is made in order to establish the similarities and differences among the three programs.

Case Study #1: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE)

Historical Perspective

In 1975, OISE, responding to initiatives from the private and public sectors of Canadian society, organized a program for developing human resources (DHR). Initially, this DHR program of studies was a joint venture between the OISE adult education graduate program and a management committee from key sectors of Canadian society. The raison d'etre was best described by Beatty (1976), the first coordinator, as follows:

> Since the interest and organizational ability to develop human resources, and to use professionals in human resource development, is beyond the maturity of many organizations, at this moment...DHR...exists to provide practitioners and change agents a support system where they can test alternatives, compare strategies, gain emotional return on their commitment to development, and have ready access to relevant experience. p. 4

To pursue this rationale, the advisory committee suggested the organization of learning groups, the student's compiling of a dossier to record experiences and to reflect on the learning that occurred, and the completion of a project related to the workplace.

The initial groups of students were sponsored by their respective organizations. Students lacking organizational sponsorship and field experience were admitted, under the second director, to enroll in the DHR certificate program. Today, in place of a DHR certificate program, students enroll in adult education graduate programs that lead to a certificate, M.Ed. (without thesis), M.A. (with thesis), or Ed.D.

Unique Program Characteristics

From its inception, the DHR program made provision for self-directed learning groups that encouraged each DHR participant to take responsibility for his or her own learning, as well as for the dynamics of the group. The DHR program differs from the regular adult education program in that students enroll together in three specially designed courses. The first two lay the ground work on which students study the dynamics of creating and operating an organization. These courses have been linked, during the past two summers, to a "voyageur" canoe trip that has served as a metaphor for examining the realities that an individual faces in being part of an organization. Such learning has potential for enhancing personal and organizational growth. During the autumn following the canoe trip, students design a course that fits their specific needs. The remainder of the DHR students' certificate, master's, or doctoral program includes special courses such as organization development, consultation skills, and a practicum in organization development, as well as adult education courses and others that will assist them in their future roles--for example, management courses at OISE and the

University of Toronto and courses on the quality of work life at York University.

Evaluation of the Program

The following observations are based on interviews with the current director, two former directors, three faculty members who have been teaching DHR students, and fifteen current students and alumni:

(1) By examining topics relating to psychosynthesis and learning styles, students gain self-awareness and knowledge about how they learn;

(2) The program permits individual to develop their talents through self-direction, but a problem exists in that students lacking experience may not know which courses to choose in order to obtain expertise.

(3) The program fosters camaraderie through team-building in the initial classes and in the natural setting of the canoe trip, but many individuals believed that some momentum was lost when students enrolled in their own programs after the initial core courses;

(4) The canoe trip acted as a kind of conceptual lens through which to view tasks, structure, and personal development, all of which have implications for one's own organization;

(5) The group processes provided opportunities for conflict resolution, an aspect of the problem-solving ability required by the reflective practitioner, but some individuals believed that more time was needed for reflection.

Case Study #2: University of Surrey

Historical Development

The University of Surrey was established in 1966. Work in the area of staff development (HRD) is available through the Department of Educational Studies. In the Division of Higher Education, students can enroll for an academic diploma, the successful completion of which, at an appropriate level, leads on to an M.Sc. degree by means of additional course work and a thesis. Subsequently students can enroll for a higher research degree, the M.Phil./Ph.D. through full-time, part-time, or distance study. The decision concerning which of these degrees is awarded to a student depends upon the caliber of his or her dissertation. In preparing for this work, students are encouraged to participate in a program that focuses on research issues such as methodology and data collection.

Unique Program Characteristics

Through the advanced diploma in educational studies, teachers, administrators in education, industry, and the professions enjoy opportunities to join theory to practice. Crucial to this endeavor is the personal construct typology that views man as a scientist who formulates theories concerning the world that are tested and revised in the light of personal experience. Pope and Keen (1981), in Personal Construct Psychology and Education applied to education the personal construct theory that had been enunciated earlier by Kelly (1955). Another unique characteristic of the program is that, in addition to taking courses within the department, students have the option to enroll, without cost, in short courses and workshops offered by the Human Potential Research Project. Through this activity, students become acquainted with the work of Heron (1986), who published a book entitled Six Category Intervention Analysis.

Evaluation of the Program

The following observations are based on interviews with the dean, eight faculty members, and only four students, because most students were away during Easter vacation: (1) The theme, "the reflective practitioner," is a paramount one that is nurtured through personal construct psychology; (2) the short courses and workshops offered by the Human Potential Research Project will not be available free of charge to students next year, but some free credit courses will be offered; (3) although the staff development (HRD) program is open to personnel from industry and business, few take advantage of it, because, as yet, no networks have been developed between the Department of Educational Studies and the private sector.

Case Study #3: University of Helsinki

Historical Perspective

Graduate study in adult education began in 1977 with the establishment of M.A., licentiate, and doctoral degrees. The M.A. program includes a core area of general studies, an area of subject studies, and a third area that embraces research methods, thesis, and work experience. For the licentiate and doctoral degrees, students attend a research seminar, but the remainder of their work is self-directed in consultation with their advisers.

Unique Program Characteristics. Students interested in HRD have an opportunity to gain work experience and undertake research at the Lahti Research and Training Centre, but this opportunity has not been fully exploited. A re-structuring of the M.A. program in 1987 enables students more readily to relate theory to research and research to practice. This restructuring is related to the work of cognitive psychologists and the "activity" theorists of the Soviet Union. The thinking of Engestrom (1987), set forth in his book Learning By Expanding, illustrates a blending of these two approaches. The new program has shifted the order of learning so that students master theory, write examinations, and then apply their knowledge to practical problems. Also, students form teams for the conduct of research in the field under the supervision of a faculty member. For HRD students, this experience lays the foundation of their own independent M.A. theses.

Evaluation of the program. The following observations are based on interviews with the dean, three faculty members who have been teaching HRD students, three administrators of the Lahti Centre, and fifteen current students and alumni: (1) The work of Engestrom gives students a theoretical framework for conducting research in the workplace; (2) Students have access to important publications on adult learning, and have found them useful in applying knowledge to practice, but few HRD publications are available to them; (3) HRD students have little contact with the private sector, because no systematic interfacing has occurred between the university and business and industry; (4) the program makes provision for a practicum, but, of the students I interviewed only one had participated in this three-month summer internship, because of the general perception that it was difficult to locate HRD internships that would broaden students' horizons and lead to jobs; and (5) students who hold HRD positions in bureaus and associations have found adult learning materials useful in applying knowledge to practice.

A Comparative Analysis of the Three Programs

The most striking feature of the comparative analysis of the three programs was the discovery of their reliance on the approach taken by Schon (1987) in his book Educating The Reflective Practitioner and in earlier writings. He argued against the preparation of practitioners as problem-solvers who choose technical ways in which to carry out a particular purpose. Such preparation, he believed, may apply only in a situation of theory rather than practice. Instead, in his view, effective professional education must emphasize "artistry" by heightening the practitioner's capacity for reflection-in-action when a familiar situation undergoes a change. Obviously, Schon's approach is quite different from the behaviorally oriented roles/competencies model developed by the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD).

In the OISE program, such "artistry" is fostered through the canoe trip mentioned earlier; at Surrey, the personal construct theory provides a context for such reflection; and, at Helsinki, Engestrom's theory of "learning by expanding" incorporates the same ideas.

Another similarity among the programs relates to the provision at OISE and Helsinki for a practicum whereby students acquire experience; although, at OISE, such provision is limited because many HRD practitioners already have experience. At Helsinki, greater efforts are needed to interface with the private and public sectors, so that meaningful internship experiences can be arranged.

Another similarity relates to students. At OISE and Surrey, they are usually older and experienced in HRD, and enter the program with a first degree. However, the OISE certificate program admits a limited number of non-degree students. At Helsinki, the M.A. is a first degree, with the result that approximately half of the students are younger and have come straight from secondary school.

A fourth similarity relates to the product. At Helsinki and Surrey, students must write a thesis, whereas most of the OISE students sidestep the research option and pursue the M.Ed. degree without a thesis.

It is apparent that, despite some differences, the three programs exhibit a commonality that stresses the individual's ability to relate to reality as a basis for action. The three case studies offer fruitful insights to American educators charged with planning HRD programs.

References

Beatty, D. (1976). Year two: Coordinator's report.

Engestrom, Y. (1987). Learning by expanding. Helsinki, Finland: Orienta-Konsultitoy.

Heron, J. (1986). _Six category intervention analysis_. Guildford, UK: Human Potential Research Project.

Kelly, G. A. (1955). The psychology of personal constructions, _1_ and _2_. New York: W. W. Norton & Co.

McLagan, P. A. (1983). Models for excellence. Washington, DC: American Society for Training and Development.

McCullough, R. C. (1981). Models and concepts for Ed.D. hrd academic programs. Washington, DC: American Society for Training and Development.

Pope, Mand Keen. (1981). Personal construct psychology and education. London: Academic Press.

Schon, D. A. (1987). Educating the reflective practitioner. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

English Only or English Plus:

Language Planning and Implications for Adult Education

by

Richard A. Orem

Northern Illinois University

De Kalb, Illinois, U.S.A.

Abstract

This paper studies the issue of language planning and policy formation as it affects language minority adults in the United States. Specifically, the policy in question is the English Language Amendment to the U.S. Constitution with its implications for the practice of education and training of language minority adult learners. Assumptions underlying arguments for and against the ELA are examined and further research questions are posed.

Purpose. The purpose of this paper is to examine issues surrounding an attempt at language planning and policy in the United States known as the English Language Amendment. Language planning and policy is an unexamined topic in the research literature of North American adult education. Yet, in the U.S., Canada, and England, English language teaching to adults is a widespread activity employing tens of thousands of adult educators and reaching hundreds of thousands, even millions, of adult learners. Any attempt, therefore, at language planning, as illustrated by efforts to amend the U.S. Constitution by making English the nation's official language, should be of interest to the adult education community. Indeed, what may on the surface appear to be an innocuous law without serious repercussions to the adult ESL community in the U.S. is being opposed with vigor by dozens of ethnic and professional organizations. This paper will present major arguments offered for and against an English Language Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, as well as a conceptual framework for further analysis of issues of language planning policy formation affecting language minority groups. Finally, several research questions are posed for consideration by adult educators as the debate over the English Language Amendment in the U.S. continues.

It may surprise a good many of us who are born into an English speaking society in North America that there is even a debate over the "official" use of English in the U.S. Such a debate has arisen over the history of the U.S. as immigration swells and subsides. Proponents of the English Language Amendment (ELA) argue for national unity which is threatened by de facto recognition of minority languages as embodied in bilingual education legislation (Bikales, 1986; Sundberg, 1988), and multilingual ballots (EPIC Events, 1988). Opponents of the ELA argue for language rights of language minority groups, arguing that the history of the U.S. is a history of immigration, cultural pluralism, and language diversity, all of which have contributed to the achievements of the society, including the rich growth of the English language (Judd, 1987; Marshall, 1986; Stalker, 1988).

The English language is currently the most widely studied foreign language in the world. It is estimated that as many as 750 million people speak English as a first or additional language. Some estimates push that number to one billion people. In other words, as many as 25% of the world's population may speak English as a first or additional language. Examples of the influence of the English language are numerous: English is the language of international communication and travel, of science and technology, of information stored in computers, of business, sports and religion (McCrum, Cran, and MacNeil, 1987).

The desire of new immigrants to the U.S. to learn English can be seen in the popularity of English language classes in public and proprietary schools, colleges, and voluntary agencies. English is viewed by these immigrants as the key to upward social mobility. Yet, together with the apparent popularity of English language instruction, there is also strong support, especially within some segments of the Hispanic community in the U.S., for bilingual methods of instruction with language minority children and adults, as manifested in the Bilingual Education Act of 1968. The concept of the melting pot in U.S. immigration history has been replaced by the concept of the salad bowl, where all live and work together, but each retains an individual ethnic and cultural identity.

The dominant lobbying group for an English language amendment to the U.S. Constitution is a not-for-profit organization called U.S. English, founded in 1983 by John Tanton, an opthamologist and also a leader of the zero population growth movement in the U.S. U.S. English now boasts over 200,000 contributors and a board of advisors with such celebrities as Walter Cronkite, Saul Bellow, Alistair Cooke, Bruno Bettelheim, and Arnold Schwarzenegger. The English Language Amendment reads:

Section 1. The English language shall be the official language of the United States.

Section 2. The United States Congress shall have the power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Although there are several other organizations supporting English as an official language in the U.S. (English First and American Ethnic Coalition), this study examined only the goals of U.S. English as it is by far the largest and best known of these organizations.

On the other hand, there is no single organization of the size and with the budget of U.S. English which has as its single purpose the opposition of the ELA. Rather, a number of smaller groups have banded together in their opposition, including a number of organizations representing ethnic groups (e.g. American Jewish Committee, Chinese for Affirmative Action, Haitian American Anti-Defamation League) as well as professional associations which have passed resolutions opposing the ELA. Examples of such professional associations include the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), the Modern Language Association (MLA), and Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). Each of these three professional associations have argued for the language rights of minority groups in the U.S. and against efforts by U.S. English to eliminate or reduce bilingual education.

In the U.S. Congress, there have been a number of attempts to introduce the English Language Amendment. But in each case the proposed amendment has been sent to committee where it has remained for lack of support. A closer look at those who have sponsored the various versions of the ELA reveals an ideological division along major party lines. Most supporters are conservative Republicans from states with small language minority populations (Judd 1987).

Why doesn't the U.S. have an official language, and what possible harm could come from having one? Was it simply an oversight? Information on the debates among the early framers of the American constitution would suggest that this omission was not an oversight. In fact, there was a good deal of discussion on the topic of an official language (Judd, 1987; Marshall, 1986). However, English was not an automatic choice. Virtually as many colonists spoke German as spoke English in 1776. It was decided not to identify an official language when it became apparent that this new country would need to attract many immigrants. To establish any language as an official language could likely discourage this immigration. If an open door policy was the goal, then what explains the periodic attempts to close the door to new immigrants?

A rationale for the changing attitudes toward others was suggested by Marshall (1986), who identified four major social forces which have appeared over the last 200 years. The first force is the changing source of immigration. The U.S. is a country of immigrants. However, as the profile of immigrants began to change from being largely white anglo-saxon Protestant to being predominantly eastern and southern European and Catholic, there emerged a growing division between the old and the new immigrants which led to the second force--nativism.

With an increase in non-Protestant immigrants, the old immigrants began to differentiate themselves more from the new immigrants. The old immigrants began to espouse the older customs and norms of society, including the English language, partly as a reaction to the increase in numbers of new immigrants from different religious faiths, partly as a reaction to several economic depressions, and partly as a reflection of a newly defined ethnocentricity and its element of xenophobia, as the young country dealt with the divisive forces leading to the Civil War.

Marshall identified the third force as war psychology. Since the Civil War the history of the U.S. has been marked by numerous conflicts, both within the U.S. (e.g. the Indian Wars) and between the U.S. and other countries (e.g. Spanish-American War and the two world wars). Each conflict has been accompanied by legislation which has had the effect of limiting immigration, restricting native language education, and increasing xenophobia. One's ability to use the English language easily marked him in a more volatile labor market which was turning more urban and more industrial.

These three forces led eventually to a fourth force, a shift in how patriotism was viewed and valued. Early values of democracy, equality, and a classless society were replaced with more sentimental values and myths. Although early patriots came to the U.S. to prosper, new patriots don't emigrate. Those who continued to arrive in the U.S. could easily have their loyalties questioned.

Historically, the major voices in any discussion of language planning and policy in the U.S. have been sociolinguists who have argued overwhelmingly against approving English as an official language (English Only) and for a program of either transitional or maintenance bilingual education (English Plus), not only for minority language groups, but also for the English-speaking majority. The English Only/English Plus debate in the U.S. has the potential for serious changes in language policy and planning as the ELA is generating widespread interest and support among the American electorate, generating criticism of U.S. English that its motives are racist, elitist, and xenophobic (Donahue, 1985; Imhoff, 1987). Until now the only legislated language policy of national scope has been the Bilingual Education Act of 1968. But even this act promotes a **transition** of language use from mother tongue to the language of wider communication rather than a **maintenance** of the mother tongue in conjunction with a language of wider communication. The danger of the transitional policy is the implication that the mother tongue is of little or no value.

Conceptual framework. Fishman (1972) provides a conceptual framework further developed by Drake (1975) and Eastman (1983) in which language planning can be viewed in terms of three basic policy types, A, B, or C. The ELA, by diminishing the role of bilingual education and desiring to substitute English only instruction, is promoting a Type A policy in which "educational authorities feel compelled to select for educational purposes a language not a mother tongue within the polity" (Drake, p. 269). Drake identifies several negative potential consequences of such a policy as a high dropout rate, low literacy rate, and a sustaining of elites.

In this same framework, Type B policies represent those of nations with an internally integrative literary tradition, but where additional traditions may exist as well. The Soviet Union and Mainland China are two examples of a Type B policy. Canada is illustrative of a Type C policy in which no single integrating indigenous tradition dominates, but rather several competing great traditions co-exist. The educational consequence is that students are educated in their mother tongue, as well as in either another co-equal variety or in a non-threatening language of wider communication. The negative consequences of the Type A approach identified by Drake are certainly being experienced in the U.S., especially within the Hispanic communities, the primary beneficiaries of bilingual education.

Implications. Implications of an English Only policy can be examined at several levels. By examining the implications and the assumptions underlying the English Only movement, we can begin to be more critical of the outcomes. The major proponents of the ELA base their arguments on several questionable assumptions:

1. that without an ELA, our national unity and identity as an English speaking nation are threatened;
2. that a common language is all that is necessary to secure national unity;
3. that without an ELA, language minority citizens and immigrants will refrain from learning English to the degree necessary to fully function in our society.

The issue will not disappear as long as immigration to North America continues. What questions, then, must adult educators pose in order to grapple with the issues of the debate? First, will passage of an ELA in effect legally mandate instruction in English as an additional language to all language minority adults? Furthermore, will passage of an ELA further motivate language minority adults to learn English? The issue here is reminiscent of the voluntary vs. mandatory education debate often discussed in adult education circles. Second, will passage of an ELA restrict adult educators' choices of approaches used with language minority adults? In effect will legal requirements substitute for sound educational decision-making and determine program direction? And third, will passage of an ELA actually promote literacy or illiteracy among language minority adults? Hirsch (1987), for example, argues for monolingualism as a prerequisite to reducing high levels of illiteracy, implying the virtues of cultural unity. "Multilingualism enormously increases cultural fragmentation, civil antagonism, illiteracy, and economic-technological ineffectualness" (p. 92). However, sociolinguists (Drake, 1975; Eastman, 1983; Fishman, 1972) have provided convincing evidence that implementing such a national language policy in a context such as the U.S. actually demonstrates tendencies in the opposite direction. These questions, and many more, will require adult educators to reflect more critically over their role in this language planning process.

References

Bikales, Gerda. 1986. Comment: The Other Side. International Journal of Sociology of Language, 60, 77-85.

Donahue, Thomas S. 1985. 'U.S. English': Its Life and Works. International Journal of Sociology of Language, 56, 99-112.

Drake, Glendon F. 1975. Integrity, Promise, and Language Planning. Language Learning, 25(2), 267-279.

Eastman, Carol. 1983. Language Planning: An Introduction. San Francisco: Chandler and Sharp Publishers.

EPIC Events (Newsletter of the English Plus Information Clearinghouse), Vol. 1 (March/April 1988).

Fishman, Joshua A. 1972. Language in Sociocultural Change. Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Hirsch, E.D. 1987. Cultural Literacy: What Every American Needs to Know. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Imhoff, Gary. 1987. Partisans of Language. English Today (no. 11), 37-40.

Judd, Elliot. 1987. The English Language Amendment: A Case Study on Languages and Politics, TESOL Quarterly, 21(1), 113-133.

Marshall, David F. 1986. The Question of an Official Language: Langauge Rights and the English Language Amendment. International Journal of Sociology of Language, 60, 7-75.

McCrum, Robert, William Cran, and Robert MacNeil. 1986. The Story of English. New York: Penguin Books.

Stalker, James C. 1988. Official English or English Only. English Journal, 77(3), 18-23.

Sundberg, Trudy J. 1988. The Case Against Bilingualism. English Journal, 77(3), 16-17.

The Adult Education Needs of the Structurally Unemployed in the United States

Rosemarie J. Park, Rebecca Storlie, Rene Dawis
University of Minnesota

This study investigates the basic skill needs of workers laid-off from declining industries in the U.S. Interviews were conducted with 168 workers in four target industries.

Workers had competed less than 11 years of school and were reluctant to enter retraining. Mathematics rather than reading presented most problems for workers.

1. Background

The United States is undergoing considerable economic change. The trend to internationalism and rapid technological growth has led to considerable loss of jobs in heavy manufacturing, steel, lumber, agriculture and even the computer industry. Nationally, five million workers were displaced from 1981-1986. In Minnesota alone it is estimated that 89,000 jobs were lost in the years 1979-83 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1985)[1]. In the year 2000 it is estimated that manufacturing will account for only 7% of jobs nationally; this is down from 28% in 1980.

Minnesota is a major center for the computer industry. Several prominent computer companies (Control Data Corporation (CDC), UNISYS, Honeywell, and IBM) are housed there. Widespread restructuring of the mainframe computer industry has affected tens of thousands of jobs across the United States. Minnesota estimates that there was a 12% loss in electrical manufacturing jobs and a 14.6% loss in computer related jobs.

Farming organizations estimate that one-third of the nation's 680,000 family-sized farms are in financial difficulty. Nearly 300,000 have already been forced out of business in the last four years.

The new job market: future prospects

Workers displaced from agriculture and traditional blue collar jobs face an entirely different job market from the one they entered on an average of twenty years ago. A report by the International Labour Organization notes that 21 million new jobs have been generated over the last ten years, 90% in small businesses with less than 500 people. Only 10% of new businesses are "high tech" but each high-tech job creates five to fifteen others representing the whole spectrum of the service industry (Barbee, 1986).[2]

The need for education and training

Lower paying jobs and jobs in the service economy do not necessarily demand lower basic skills levels or fewer educational qualifications. Tom Sticht (a United States expert on job related literacy) notes that jobs projected for greatest growth, such as industrial robot production worker, geriatric social worker or energy technician, require at least a 10th -12th grade reading level (Sticht 1983).[3]

The purpose of the study

This study was designed to investigate how workers displaced from key industries such as lumber, heavy manufacturing (including computer-related manufacturing), mining, and farming felt about the need for basic skills improvement and retraining. We also collected information variables we thought would impact their views on these subjects. We interviewed a representative randomly selected sample of workers laid off from each industry. A six month follow up of a subsample was conducted to see if our original interviewees changed their views after a period of time.

2. Methodology.

An interview questionnaire was developed containing questions about retraining, the perceived need for basic skills, interest and importance of basic skills, the need other workers had for basic skills brush-up, and the perception of the current job crisis and the workers' perceptions as to what public and private sector agencies and the unions should do about the current job crisis.

The advisory committee identified four representative plants in the target industries where substantial numbers of the workforce had been laid off in the preceding 6 month period. Thirty individuals, or not less than 10% of the number laid off from each plant, were randomly selected and 168 interviews completed.

We interviewed a subsample of the original sample six months later to determine the basic skill requirements in subsequent training or employment, to chart hiring and wage patterns, and to elicit additional worker suggestions for public policy. Findings were analysed using descriptive statistics and regression techniques.

3.Findings

i. What jobs are dislocated workers seeking and will they enroll in retraining programs?

Most dislocated workers did not envision making radical changes in their occupation. When asked, "Ideally what job would you like to get?" most wanted something similar to the job they had just left.

Will dislocated workers enroll in job retraining programs and what influences that decision? Approximately 54% of all workers intend to enroll in retraining. This retraining was both long term (more than one year) and short term. A preliminary review of the preferred types of training shows that 71% of the farmers who were interested in retraining, 63% of the manufacturing workers, 75% of the steelworkers and 55% of the lumber workers stated they intended to go into long term job training.

Strongly predictive of the intention to go into retraining was the perception that jobs in the future will require more reading (r =.23), stated interest in math brush up programs (r =.36) and willingness to attend these programs (r =.27). The strongest disincentive to attending both basic skills and job training programs was age (r = -.28).

Did workers hold to their intention to retrain on follow-up six months later? Not surprisingly, fewer actually did retrain: 35% ended up in retraining courses and only 8% were in training at the time of the interviews. Time and money were the most frequent deterrents cited.

ii. Use of basic skills: Do workers use reading and math on the job? Will future jobs require more?

Manufacturing workers and farmers see reading and math as important in performing the jobs they held. When asked "How important would you say reading and math were in your previous job?" all rated reading and math as above average in importance. Math was seen as marginally less important than reading. Lumber workers, least likely to see reading and math as important in their own previous work, tended to see future jobs as requiring more reading. Steelworkers and those in high tech related manufacturing, who rated reading high in previous work, were less inclined to see more reading being required in future jobs.

The more education one had, the more likely the worker was to see the importance of reading on the job. This is not surprising because better educated workers generally go into jobs where reading is relatively important.

On follow up, we had expected that workers would find increased reading and math required in their new jobs. This, however, was not the case. The lumber workers who read less on their old job did find more reading required on their new jobs in assembly work or service jobs. However, relatively few found work. The steel workers rated reading on their new jobs as less important, whereas the manufacturing workers in the metro area reported relatively little change.

iii. The perceived need for brush up programs in reading and math

Four of every five interviewees agreed that other workers need to brush up in basic skills and would benefit from programs in those areas. The high tech manufacturing group differed from the others in that, better educated themselves, they saw less need for brush up programs and were less optimistic about others benefiting. All groups universally agreed that they themselves had the reading and math and writing skills they needed to go into training.

iv. Will workers enroll in reading and math programs?

When conducting the original survey, we had asked the question "If programs in (basic skills) were offered, how likely is it that you would attend?" Answers varied among groups. Most likely to enroll were manufacturing workers who were offered a basic skills class on site. Least likely to attend were steelworkers who, as a group, did not see more reading being required in future jobs.

v. Does age influence the intention to seek retraining?

Of the workers we interviewed in our original sample, older workers were displaced from jobs that required lower levels of basic skills in terms of reading and writing compared with current and future jobs. They tended to see more reading and math being required in the workplace. In addition, they were less likely to say they had the reading skills they needed to be successful in retraining.

There was a significant relationship between age and perception of how bad the current job crisis was (.35). Perhaps it was this pessimism that prevented many older workers from participating in the basic skills program on our test site.

vi. Perception of the job crisis.

Those in computer-related manufacturing in the metro area saw the crisis as less severe. The follow-up interviews confirmed that this group was most successful in getting jobs. Seventy-eight percent had found new jobs six months later. Steelworkers in the northern part of the state saw the crisis as most severe. Their fears were founded. Six months later only 37% had found new jobs. Farmers rated the severity of the crisis high and saw less chance that things would improve for them in the future. Only 36% thought they would emerge better off from the crisis.

vii. Learning preferences:

Not surprisingly, there was a heavy preference for hands on learning rather than a lecture approach (83% of all workers interviewed preferred hands on). Workers identified lack of knowledge or experience as reasons for preferring classroom (88%) over computer-aided instruction.

viii. Advice to government, unions and private agencies

The final question in the interview was "What should the Federal Government, State Government, the Unions and Private Industry do about the current crisis?" The replies fell into several major areas: protect workers' jobs and benefits, give advance warning of closings, extend unemployment benefits, improve helping agencies, increase the roll of private businesses in helping employees, retrain employees on the job, get the unions to work together.

4. Overall Recommendation: Policy, Education and Training

Reviewing the findings from the project pointed to a series of discrete problems that could be tackled without major changes in either policies, programs or funding. These solutions are listed below:

Problem 1: Workers perceive there is a need for basic skills brush up and test low in mathematics but are unwilling to enter basic skills brush up programs.
Recommendation : Job training and basic skills training must be integrated. All job training programs must provide the basic skills brush-up necessary to help those who are educationally less prepared to complete job training programs successfully .

Problem 2: Workers need to know what training options are open to them as soon as possible and before their unemployment benefits are in danger of running out.
Recommendation : There must be a plan at the state and local levels for coordinating the efforts of agencies who serve the training needs of dislocated workers.

Problem 3: Vocational technical schools need to offer programs or modify programs to make them flexible enough for older dislocated workers to attend.
Recommendation : The vocational schools must plan customized programs for dislocated workers. These programs must be flexible in terms of scheduling and location.

Problem 4: The majority of workers have lost much of the math skill they learned in school.
Recommendation : Basic skills programs should stress teaching of the math skills needed in jobs and retraining.

Problem 5: Workers complain of insufficient notice of job loss so they can plan for job search or training.
Recommendation : State legislatures should seriously reconsider requiring employers to give adequate notice of plant closures or sales.

Problem 6: Workers can not afford to undertake long term training.
Recommendation : State legislatures should seriously consider methods of ensuring the financial stability of dislocated workers while they retrain.

Problem 7: Workers, unions and government employees see lay offs as endemic rather than symptomatic in the State's economy.
Recommendation : State legislatures should increase funding and support for dislocated worker programs.

Notes

1. Displaced Workers, 1979-83. United States Department of Labor Statistics, Bulletin 2240, July 1985.

2. Barbee, David. Methods of Providing Vocational Skills to Individuals with Low Literacy Levels: The U.S. Experience. Vocational Training Branch, International Training Office, CH-1211, Geneva 22, Switzerland.

3. Sticht, Thomas G. Literacy and Human Resources Development at Work, HumRRO, Alexandria, VA. Feb. 1983.

PHILOSOPHY AND 'PHILOSOPHIES' OF ADULT EDUCATION

R.W.K. Paterson University of Hull

Adult education should be viewed in its widest possible setting. Overviews derived from standardized belief-packages can have serious drawbacks. We need to distinguish between such 'philosophies' of adult education and the specialized sense of philosophy as an intellectual discipline which has a distinctive, if more limited, contribution to make.

When we act, we always act with some background knowledge of the situation within which we are acting. Let us call this background knowledge a 'cognitive map' of the situation in which we are acting. To act, to form plans, to take initiatives, we need to operate with some kind of cognitive map, however rudimentary. This, I suggest, is not an empirical generalization, but a logically necessary truth about the very concept of 'action'. We can mindlessly react, but we cannot possibly act in a cognitive vacuum, since 'action' presupposes the ability to identify possible courses of action, to estimate their consequences, and to choose from among available options. And even in the simplest situations, the better our cognitive map, the better placed we are to take successful action. If we know the lay-out of the situation in which we find ourselves and the causal connections holding among its various ingredients, for example, we can begin to take purposive steps because we are in a position to foresee outcomes and to balance probable costs against envisaged benefits.

More complex and sophisticated activities require wider, richer, and more accurate cognitive maps. Take the work of many professionals - legal and medical practitioners, social workers, central and local planners, architects, business and trade union leaders, scientists, parliamentarians, or educators. High-level professional work in such fields, particularly the formation of policies, increasingly requires a sensitive understanding of issues in a large number of diverse spheres of human life which will often be affected, directly or indirectly, by the decisions professionals have to make and the priorities they establish. The overview which professionals develop on their work will often necessitate an overview of what is, what might come to be, and also what practicably ought to be, going on in many different theatres of human activity which overlap with their own. I assume that a professional ought to be carrying out his work, not just as a competent expert, but also as an intelligent and responsible member of his society, and indeed of the human race.

Ideally, the cognitive map with which a professional operates ought to be as complete and comprehensive as possible. Of course the farther its horizons stretch, the less exact will be our knowledge of areas which are peripheral to our more immediate professional concerns. But a cognitive map on which whole areas are left blank will in some circumstances be worse than no map at all. In fact, however, we probably all do operate with some kind of general picture of how our own life-activity fits into a network of inclusive meanings, in terms of which we try to make ultimate sense of what we are about. Each of us has a self-image, some idea of how we are related to our fellow creatures, some conception of the social significance of what we are and do, and some conception, though perhaps rather dim, of our standing as human beings in the wider universe. We judge ourselves, and feel that there can be some sort of value in what we try to achieve. A 'world-picture' is an appropriate name for so wide-ranging a perspective on human life and on the overall background against which we can view and assess the conduct of human affairs. Such a world-picture will be much more than a mere inventory; it will, indeed, also be more than a merely descriptive account of the empirical relations which hold within and between the natural, social, economic, and political domains. It may well contain patterns of religious (or anti-religious) interpretation; it will enshrine a view of human personality, of what it means to be human; and it will be permeated by many judgments concerning comparative value, judgments about what matters most, and what matters less, for individuals, society, and the human race, present and future.

Arguably, the resolve to examine the wider significance of our lives, to face up to what and where we are, is an integral part of the personal dignity we want for all human beings. We want people to be critical, reflective, choosing actors who take a conscious part in forming their own destiny, not just blind pawns moved about by unseen forces. And when we think of the cognitive maps needed by men and women who shoulder professional responsibilities, we may well feel that educators, perhaps above all, have a duty to try to arrive at a clear world-picture in the light of which they can come to perceive their educational functions more sharply and securely. Concerned as they professionally are with the promotion of knowledge and understanding, and with fostering the development of human beings as free, responsible persons, educators have a special obligation to think carefully and critically about the meaning of their work viewed within the fullest possible context.

It is, then, intrinsically fitting that men and women working professionally in adult education should view their activities as taking place within the whole panorama of human life and its setting. But in addition, a clear and consistent world-picture has great instrumental value. By scanning the whole background, remote and near, we can come to detect hitherto unsurmised possibilities, unfolding fresh opportunities of more challenging and creative work. Consider the ways in which our enhanced understanding of mankind's tantalizing and fragile relationship to our natural environment has led to the development of educational work in the field of ecology and studies of the problems of environmental pollution, themes which would have held scant interest for our Victorian forefathers, locked as most of them were in world-pictures incorporating one or another narrow, arrogant version of human supremacism. And when we have established a more extensive range of general possibilities, we are in a position to distinguish between different types of specific objectives to which our resources can be directed, to select those which seem educationally most appropriate and reject those which are educationally incongruous or will lead into blind alleys. We develop a richer and truer range of insights and sympathies, and hence can come to revise our educational priorities. Consider the ways in which our greater insight into animal behaviour, and into our own more subtle animality, have recently contributed to the development of courses on ethology and programmes on animal welfare, or the extent to which the study of social history has displaced the study of the history of kings and queens. If re-examining curricular priorities is a basic element in all educational planning, the more complete the perceived context in which we seek to determine our priorities the more rational will be our planning.

Other advantages will accrue to the adult educator who takes stock of his work from a viewpoint whence its distinctive place in man's life-within-the-world can be evaluated. When we can thus 'situate' our work, and thereby more clearly discern its wider implications, we are more likely to be animated by a greater sense of purpose, because we are better able to recognize the connection of what we are doing with everything else we believe in. Moreover, we become better equipped to explain and defend our work, to justify its claims to public support and respect, when we can show how it bears upon the deepest interests and most far-reaching aspirations of our fellow individual human beings, of our society, and of mankind as a whole.

Now when adult educators consciously situate their professional activities on a cognitive map which tries to embrace and do justice to all the main dimensions of human life as it is lived in its widest natural (and perhaps also supernatural) setting, there can, I think, be no strong objections to referring to this guiding and structuring world-picture as a 'philosophy' of adult education. However, the term 'philosophy' here can give rise to a serious ambiguity, and I shall comment on this shortly.

In the meantime let us note that on the intellectual market there are always to be found a quite large number of ready-made world-pictures, carefully worked out, often in close detail, intelligently expounded and critically tightened up against all the more obvious objections, and pre-packaged for immediate use. While their contents often overlap, as with all other pre-assembled packages their vendors each try to make sure that their particular package is distinctive, indeed unique; and in the case of belief-packages it will be claimed, or at least insinuated, that what is being distinctively offered to would-be believers is uniquely true. Hence an adult educator can instantly become the part-owner, or beneficiary, of a compendious belief-system, a 'philosophy', which will carry the prestige label of Christianity, Marxism, Pragmatism, Islam, Humanism, Existentialism, Physicalism, or whatever - each label with a special mark to indicate which of the sundry versions of these creeds is being used to confer authority on his judgments about adult education.

There are self-evident advantages in opting for a standardized belief-package. To work out a belief-system for oneself is an arduous and lengthy process, the results of which are always provisional. Although admittedly the initial choosing of any packaged set of items calls for some forethought, once we have settled on our favoured belief-package we shall at least feel ourselves exonerated from further time-consuming thought about its fundamental premises. But there are immense dangers. The whole transaction is just too easy. While of course any of the available world-pictures can furnish us with an overview or cognitive map in terms of which we can frame our educational theory and practice, they cannot all be true. Indeed most of them will be, and all of them may be, essentially false, and so the one we work with may be actually disorienting. In the efforts made by its champions to protect their system against objections from different quarters, they will tend to understate data from realms of experience which seem to be dissonant with their master doctrines.

The result will be a world-picture which is admirably neat - but also suspiciously neat. Their thirst for internal consistency can degenerate into a passion for orthodoxy, lending itself only too readily to dogmatism, and perhaps ultimately fanaticism. Instead of helping to unite adult educators in a common cause, the outcome may be quarrelsome divisions stretching across the profession, in turn dividing actual and potential students. Two people of deeply differing opinions, both of whom are seeking the truth in a reflective, open-minded, self-critical spirit, welcoming suggestions as to where they may have made mistakes, can collaborate very fruitfully. But when each thinks that he knows the truth, and that the other is therefore essentially, fundamentally, irremediably wrong, each is all too likely to regard the other's educational efforts, methods, and policies with rooted distrust and even antagonism.

I should now like to make some comments on the epistemological status of all these world-pictures (whether standardized belief-packages or independently worked out) which offer to give shape and meaning to our role as adult educators. In particular we need to get clear about the relation between such 'philosophies' of adult education and philosophy in its more specialized sense as a well-established and distinctive intellectual discipline which can make its own useful, if more limited, contribution to our thinking about adult education.

The first point that needs to be noticed is that when we try to state our most fundamental beliefs about the world comprehensively and coherently, we shall inevitably find that our general statement is made up of propositions which belong to several quite different logical kinds. There will be empirical propositions, e.g. the propositions that we are mortal, that we have evolved from more primitive life-forms, and that the earth is not the centre of the universe. There will be value judgments, e.g. about what enhances the quality of life, and about what constitutes justice in human affairs. There will be arguments, inferences, chains of reasoning, e.g. arguments for psychological determinism based on the resemblances between brains and computers, and arguments for the inextricably social nature of man based on our intrinsic ability to use language. And there will be metaphysical assertions about the overarching constitution of the world, e.g. that only physical objects and forces exist, that the world is under the direction of a loving Creator, or that everything obeys unalterable natural laws. Thus any world-picture we operate with will be bound to be epistemologically composite.

In building up a systematic overview of the part which educational activities can play in human life, what contribution, then, can we legitimately expect from philosophy, understood now as a specialized academic discipline with its own characteristic concerns and procedures?

Most contemporary practitioners of philosophy would agree that there are certain tasks which philosophy cannot be called upon to perform. Empirical facts have to be established, and empirical theories devised, by practitioners of the appropriate empirical disciplines, using whatever investigational or explanatory techniques they find to be most efficient - physicists, astronomers, historians, sociologists, psychologists, and so on. It is not for philosophers to challenge what physicists have discovered about electromagnetic radiation, what biochemists have discovered about chromosomes, or what economists advance as the causes of unemployment. Nor is philosophy a storehouse of value judgments. The moral philosopher is not the custodian of a body of moral truths in the way that a geologist is the possessor of a body of truths about the strata of the earth's crust. Certainly philosophers can make 'second order' contributions to our scientific and moral understanding, by subjecting various key concepts to logical scrutiny. They can analyse the features in virtue of which a theory is correctly deemed to be 'scientific', or the differences between value judgments and factual judgments. They can examine the concepts of 'evidence', 'proof', 'explanation', and 'duty', 'fairness', 'merit'. They can test the logical structure of different scientific theories and systems of moral belief. But philosophers, qua philosophers, cannot possibly offer to supply new types of scientific data or to provide the detailed content of our developing moral systems.

Since philosophy is above all the theory and practice of logic, it should be manifest that philosophers do have great professional interest in the arguments, inferences, and chains of reasoning by which a world-picture is held together and by appeal to which its adherents claim that its conclusions are well grounded. This is, I hope, so obvious that nothing more need be said about this philosophical task at this stage.

Probably most laymen imagine that metaphysical questions fall exclusively within the province of philosophy. This would be to overlook the part which other branches of knowledge play. The relation of mind and matter, the existence of God, the universality of determinism - any clarification of such issues needs considerable input from physicists, neurologists, psychologists, theologians, and others, as well as from specialists in applied logic. If philosophers have a unique and indispensable role in the study of metaphysical questions, this is, first, because these questions often arise at the intersection of two or more disciplines (e.g. the mind-brain question), and the most difficult problem so often concerns possible logical relationships between data of radically different kinds. Secondly, philosophical analysis is necessary because metaphysical issues typically revolve round 'public concepts' rather than technical concepts governed by strict definitions laid down by some specialist discipline. Whereas there is little dispute about the standard meaning of such terms as 'radioactivity' or 'synapse', there are no generally agreed rules governing the use of concepts like 'free', 'choose', 'motive', or 'desire', which are central to the issue of freewill and determinism and which cry out for logical analysis. It is understandable, therefore, that philosophy should be thought of as greatly concerned with the metaphysical problems which vex us. However, it is erroneous to suppose that these problems are the sole preserve of philosophers.

What, then, can be expected from philosophy as a specialist intellectual discipline by adult educators who are striving to perceive the ultimate significance of their work and to situate it on a comprehensive map of human experience and the human condition? How can philosophy help us in our search for a 'philosophy' of adult education?

First, I suggest, the practice of logical analysis can stimulate adult educators to think critically about their metaphysical assumptions. On the one hand, this can help save us from sluggishly taking a dull, lifeless positivism, with its narrow and myopic outlook on human aspirations, as the unexamined scenario within which we frame our educational objectives. And on the other hand, it can help induce adult educators who are Christians, Marxists, Jews, Humanists, or adherents of other belief-systems to look harder at their assumptions about the nature of life and to consider alternative perceptions more open-mindedly and sympathetically. Secondly, logical analysis can bring greater rigour to our discussions of educational epistemology. The much-flaunted concept of 'praxis', for example, has long been in need of a thorough logical overhaul. And if adult educators were more conversant with the work done by philosophers on the concepts of 'truth' and 'knowledge', many of the varieties of cognitive relativism which pass for profundity in our debates about the curriculum might quickly be seen to rest on several notorious logical fallacies.

Thirdly, there is our understanding of human nature. Are our students computers to be reprogrammed, sets of reaction-patterns to be modified by behavioural engineering, children of a loving Father, or private centres of consciousness each uniquely individual? These or other conceptions will influence our views of what is involved in 'teaching' and 'learning'. Without a closely argued philosophical underpinning, the plethora of contemporary data from sociobiology, artificial intelligence, humanistic psychology, and elsewhere will either engulf us or, more probably, tempt many of us into a timid, fluctuating, and shallow eclecticism. Fourthly, there are all the questions about the social role of adult education. For example, talk about adult education for 'social change' tends to beg a whole range of ethical and conceptual questions and stands in urgent need of elucidation. How can adult educators legitimately claim a political role not claimed or enjoyed by other professional groups? Should social changes be in the direction of greater material prosperity, greater individual liberty, or a fairer distribution (which is not necessarily equivalent to a more equal distribution) of wealth and power? Presuppositions need to be identified, distinctions drawn, and patterns of argument rendered completely explicit. Lastly, in the domain of educational value judgments a great deal of conceptual analysis needs to be done. Plainly the concept of 'education' itself enshrines value judgments. So does the concept of 'adult'. One other example must suffice. In constructing a worthwhile curriculum many complex and diverse value judgments get made, and attempts to mask these value judgments by relativizing them call out for exposure, since a necessary condition of rational curricular planning is that we should be lucidly aware of the priorities we are in fact accepting.

I have argued that we do need a 'philosophy' of adult education. But adult educators for this reason need philosophy as a conceptual discipline. A 'philosophy' of adult education purports to be a body of guiding truths. Academic philosophy, rather than offering such a body of truths, provides instead the logical tools by which 'philosophies' of adult education can be continuously monitored. All 'philosophies' of adult education embody important presuppositions, some eminently reasonable, others highly debatable. Academic philosophy is the critical examination of presuppositions and, perpetually subjecting as it does its own procedures to criticism without limit, can alone of all disciplines be regarded as totally presuppositionless. Thus understood, I suggest, philosophy is not the resting-place, but a permanently necessary accompaniment, of all intellectually responsible inquiry into the nature and aims of our work.

ADULT LEARNING IN NON-FORMAL SETTINGS

Keith Percy,

University of Lancaster, U.K.

ABSTRACT

The paper reports a substantial research enquiry into learning activity among adults in voluntary organisations completed in 1987. The enquiry used a variety of quantitative and qualitative methodologies and showed that adult learning takes place in forms, modes and settings which adult educators cannot easily, but now must, recognise.

CONTEXT

In Spring 1986, the Unit for the Development of Adult Continuing Education (UDACE) commissioned the author to conduct an empirical investigation into the educational activities of voluntary organisations. UDACE is the U.K. agency funded by government and other sources to encourage review and development in policy and practice in adult continuing education. The project which it commissioned at the University of Lancaster was to last for seven months (June to December 1986) and was to have two objectives:

1. The construction of a "map" of voluntary organisations and of the defining characteristics of their educational activities.
2. Enquiry into, and classification of, the kinds of educational activities apparent in voluntary organisations.

The time-scale, and funding, for the investigation made it obviously necessary for empirical work to take place in a limited number of geographical areas. On the basis of previous work, three were chosen:

(i) Central Manchester - an inner city area;

(ii) Preston - a medium sized northern town;

(iii) Part of South Cumbria - a rural area adjacent to the coast.

The definition of a voluntary organisation which was adopted excluded:

(i) Informal or ad hoc groups;

(ii) Organisations established under statutory authority or controlled by statutory authority;

(iii) Organisations which were primarily profit-making or dependent upon fees paid by members.

Although voluntary organisations might have paid employees, they were defined by being under the democratic control of their members.

On the basis of earlier work, the project's enquiries were essentially concerned with the learning rather than the educational activities of adults. The distinction is not an idle one. It was hypothesised that adults in voluntary organisations may learn without being taught, and without being in educational settings which a professional adult educator would recognise as legitimate. From earlier work, it was known that adults often would reject the terminology of "education" for reasons of previous experience but, nevertheless, might objectively be recognised to be engaged in "learning" activities.

The Lancaster enquiry worked with a six-fold classification of voluntary organisations which was, for the most part, empirically derived. It used the notion of "orientations", which typified a cluster of objectives, motivations and tendencies which explained the existence of a voluntary organisation and the reasons of its members for joining it. An organisation often could be classified with more than one orientation. The six orientations were:

ORIENTATION	TYPIFICATION	EXAMPLES
INTEREST	The pursuit of a hobby, sport, special interest, craft, skill, etc.	Model Railway Club French Circle Keep Fit Club
SERVICE	The provision of a service in the health, family welfare, social services areas.	Age Concern Alcoholics Anonymous Victim Support Scheme
ADVOCACY	for which the main purpose is political, pressure group, religious or 'social cause' advocacy.	Conservative Party Green Peace Baha'i Assembly
SOCIAL	The main rationale is to bring people together, to foster friendships, to reduce isolation.	Old People's Club Mother's Union
COMMUNITY	Concerned with common issues, developments and activities in a particular location or community.	Community Arts Group Tenants' Association Community Care Group
VOCATIONAL	Unemployed or employed people concerned with objectives related to particular trades or professions or to provide support in periods of unemployment.	Small Business Club Industrial Society Unemployed Workers' Centre

METHODS

The Lancaster/UDACE Project worked with four broad areas of methodology. They were:

(i) Postal survey

(ii) Telephone follow-up interviews

(iii) Face-to-face interviews with organisers, officials and members of organisations

(iv) Visits and observations, including systematic structured observations of individual behaviour in six Preston voluntary organisations.

These are briefly described below:

(i) Postal Survey

Given the amorphous and disparate nature of the population of voluntary organisations to be surveyed in the three geographical areas and the difficulty of communicating the subject matter, the postal survey worked remarkably well. The initial administrative task was to construct as accurate a list of voluntary organisations as possible in each area, with up-to-date names and addresses of secretaries, chairmen or other contact persons. Libraries, town information offices, directories, newspapers, even shop windows were sources. Eventually, 790 questionnaires were mailed,; 611 returned (77.3%); and, after exclusion of late returns and returns from disbanded or inaccurately categorised voluntary organisations, 523 were analysed (66.2%). A wealth of information resulted from the analyses.

(ii) Telephone Follow-Up Interviews

Respondents to the postal survey were asked to volunteer themselves for possible further contact by the Project team. On the basis of response to certain key questions in the survey, c.60 of these volunteers were isolated; a target of 24 telephone interviews (covering all six orientations) from these 60 were selected; 20 interviews were completed in the very short time available. The content of the interviews was was designed to get below the surface of what, it was claimed, was going on in a voluntary organisation. If an organisation claimed to be "educational", what did that mean? If a respondent said that there were "training schemes"; that members "learned" from each other or from the experience of membership; if gains in "motivation" or "self-confidence" were reported - what did it mean, what was the evidence, how did it take place?

The material gathered in these interviews greatly extended the Project's understanding of the postal survey data.

(iii) Face-to-Face Interviews

A significant number (n = c.100) of face-to-face interviews were accomplished in the three geographical areas with officials and members of organisations. All were carried out from semi-structured schedules; some were conducted in controlled settings but most were not (i.e. there were other people around). These interviews were particularly designed to provide data on the history, structure, operation, finances and needs of the organisations.

(iv) Visits and Observations

Visits and observations largely took place at the same time, and with similar purposes, as the face-to-face interviews. However, project workers wrote detailed reports of what they observed at meetings of organisations, laying particular emphasis on description of behaviour that in any sense could be perceived as learning and/or teaching behaviour.

In the fieldwork in Preston, a hierarchical structured behaviour schedule was developed and used in the observation of the behaviour of adults in six voluntary organisations. The purpose was to achieve data on actual behaviour (which might be classified as learning or non-learning behaviour) rather on relying totally on subjective self report or reports on the behaviour of others. Despite many difficulties and its very time-consuming nature, this part of the enquiry threw up fascinating differences between organisations.

FINDINGS

The Project showed, through using a range of empirical methodology, that it was possible to map learning activity in voluntary organisations; that there were variations between voluntary organisations with different "orientations" in the types, circumstances and status of learning activities to be found; and that there were differences between the three geographical areas (Central Manchester, Preston and South Cumbria) in the mix of voluntary organisations and range of adult learning activity to be found. Above all, the Project concluded that there is overwhelming evidence of significant adult learning activity in the voluntary organisation sector, and that professional adult educators from the statutory sector are ill-advised if they do not take serious account of it.

However, there are important differences between the statutory and voluntary sectors. Rarely would adults attend classes in the statutory sector without including the notion of "learning" among the cluster of motives for attendance. It is likely that definite structures of teaching, classrooms, structured programmes and perhaps assessment, will be expected by students and planned by formal providers. In voluntary organisations it is not the same. The reason for attendance is rarely overtly stated as "learning"; that reason lies rather in the "orientation" of the organisation. However, the Project concluded that, frequently, in order to carry out that "orientation", learning activity was necessary and expected - although not necessarily conceptualised or verbalised as such. Moreoever, there was a great deal of evidence for the importance of social/affiliative reasons for joining and attending a voluntary organisation. It was possible to argue that the experience of joining and adapting to an organisation, interacting with peers, and perhaps sharing in the management of the organisation, all promoted forms of adult learning.

The Project, indeed, distinguished between formal and informal learning activities which it found to be present in voluntary organisations. The formal learning activities, perhaps, require little explanation except to emphasise that there were variations between voluntary organisations with different "orientations" and that the presence of formal learning activities was not necessarily the same as the achievement of learning goals. Thus such formal activities as:

Teaching

Organised Discussion

Training

Assessment and Certification

could be identified.

The Project also identified such informal learning activities as:

Practice Learning	Learning by doing, learning from practice, learning through improvement, development, ease of operation, passing through stages.
Appenticeship Learning	"Junior" members more or less informally associated with "senior" members, watching, imitating, asking questions, remembering, receiving criticism.
Learning from Experience	Unexpected learning of skills, abilities and knowledge - not accidental but not intended. These might emanate from the purposes, structure and day-to-day running of the organisation.
Learning through social interaction	"Learning from other people" in the sense that organisations provide a structure of roles and relationships in which inter-personal skills are explored and developed.

It can be argued that the extensive data, and the range of conclusions, which resulted from the Lancaster /UDACE project should have implications for professional adult educators in local authority and other settings. These implications are likely to lie in areas of:

(i) Co-operation between the statutory and voluntary sectors;

(ii) Facilitation and support by statutory agencies of adult learning in the voluntary sector;

(iii) Re-conceptualisation and re-direction of the programmes and arrangement of statutory sector adult educators.

TOWARD A NEW PROCEDURE FOR LEARNING PROJECT RESEARCH

Dr. John M. Peters, University of Tennessee

Abstract

A need exists for additional research procedures in the area of learning project research. This paper describes a phenomenological procedure which extends current research into the dynamics of reasoning processes involved in learning projects.

Introduction

Researchers have cultivated the terrain of adult learning projects for two decades, yet their harvest has been limited to a nearly-annual crop of frequency counts and categories reflecting demographic-like features of adults' attempts to change some aspects of their knowledge, attitudes and skills. We have stores of data about the numbers of projects completed by individuals, the average length of projects, the distribution of time allotted to project activities, the goals sought by learners and other descriptive features of these important enterprises of adult learners. Important as such information is, we have seen little improvement in the substance of the fruits of our labor in studying learning projects. Notwithstanding the notable efforts of Guglielmino (1978, 1988), Spear (1988) and a few others to move out of the furrow so well plowed by Tough (1979) and dozens of replicators, researchers seem to be stuck in a muddy field of what Gouldner (1967) calls "methodolatory" (dug up by Brookfield, 1986) or an allegiance to the tool that Tough used to break new ground in theory and practice. Even this claim is in a rut, since others have called for the invention of new tools and plans for doing adult learning project research (e.g., Caffarella and O'Donnel, 1988; Boshier, 1983) and some writers have even questioned the sensibleness of being in the business in the first place (e.g., Brookfield, 1988).

It is hard to leave the family spread, even if the soil is thin, the fields are dry, and the yields are declining. Researchers who limit themselves to use of a single method which yields the same basic information about learning projects are running the risk of a low credit rating among academicians and practitioners alike. Perhaps we should rotate our research methods, or dig deeper into the loam of learning projects, or employ more sophisticated machinery. The question is, which of these alternatives will result in the greater return on our investment? This paper describes one procedure that promises to move our learning project research into more fertile fields. The procedure does this by probing the content and structure of reasoning involved in designing and conducting learning projects.

Toward A New Procedure

A concern with the structure of a person's intentionality forms the basis of Harre and Secord's (1973) proposal that theory and research in the study of social reality should concern "self-directed and self-monitored behavior...the prototype of behavior in ordinary living" (p.9). Self directed behavior is self reflective behavior. These authors claim that an explanation of behavior lies in the identification of "generative mechanisms." These mechanisms "drive" behavior via a "self direction according to the meaning ascribed to the situation" (p.6). What is referred to here is the set of rules each person forms for himself/herself as a result of a continuous adaptation to varying situations in life. If the generative mechanisms are a function of the meaning of a situation for a person, it follows that one very direct way of accessing these meanings is by gathering first-person accounts of that person's behavior. An analysis of such accounts (self reports) ought to put us in a position to discover the structure of the persons's rule structure relevant to particular behaviors. The procedure described in this paper is a way of uncovering and describing this generative mechanism.

This procedure was developed for a research project on adult problem solving and learning in the early 1980's. Funded by the National Institute of Education, the project focused on differences in problem solving approaches undertaken by literate vs. nonliterate adults. Since then, it has been used as a procedure in studies of several different populations of problem solvers and as a knowledge acquisition method in the development of expert systems. We call the procedure "ART-ACTS." ART stands for "Action-Reason Technique" and ACTS for "Atomizing, Categorizing, Thematizing and Schematizing."

The basic structure of the method is an interview-analyze-interview cycle. The interview is an open-ended, probing, yet structured procedure designed to identify the actions taken by the learner while engaged in a learning project and the reasons for actions taken. The identification of actions and reasons is strictly from the learner's point of view, and is accomplished by asking the learner what he/she did to conduct the project and why each action step was taken. In general, the ART involves four steps: (1) the identification of the interviewee's overall problem or task which forms the basis of the learning project; (2) the establishment of the beginning and end of the project; (3) the identification of actions taken to design and conduct the project; and (4) the identification of reasons for each action taken.

The first step requires the learner to determine the nature of the problem or task involved in the learning project. The project is therefore what the learner says it is, not what might be suggested by the interviewer or by prompt sheets. Given that most problems that serve as the focus of learning projects are "ill-defined", what counts as the problem space is almost always determined by the problem solver.

The second step is essential to accurate recall of project activities, and gives both the interviewer and the interviewee a time frame within which to discuss project actions and reasons. It also helps to structure the overall project in terms of the order of actions, whether or not they actually occurred in some linear form.

The third step is based on the assumption that the learner is in the best position to determine what should count as a solution to the problem and actions taken to complete his/her project. Another assumption is that the learner directs his/her behavior according to meanings ascribed to problem or task situations, and the situations and situational meanings will necessarily change as the end of the problem approaches. The challenge of the ART is to represent the actions as the interviewee sees them. One action at a time is identified, and each action is described as it actually happened, not as the interviewee might characterize his/her general approach to learning. For example, an action might be described as "I talked to a specialist about my topic," but not as "I generally talk to people who are specialists in the field."

The fourth step calls on the interviewee to account for the actions identified in step three. Here the interviewer seeks to probe for elements of the learner's reasoning structure that underlies his/her actions. As in the first three steps, the interviewee is expected to respond in the way he/she intends to be understood. Thus, the interviewer does not sit in judgment of the worthiness of the learner's responses, but instead assumes that the way the learner conceptualizes and communicates the actions and a justification for the actions represents the meaning that these elements of the project has for the learner. The interaction between the learner and the object of learning itself has everything to do with the manner in which the learning project is represented.

With reference to the fourth step, it should be said that, when people reason, they argue for a point of view, especially when their reasons are explained to other people. In cases of ill-defined problem situations, the problem solver may be expected to put forth a "practical argument" (as opposed to a formal argument associated with syllogistic reasoning), which is reasoning about what to do. For example, "I wanted a computer. In order to get a computer, I needed money. I got some money." When such an account is given, the person giving it usually describes it in terms of what is called the "intentional idiom" or the "grammar of intentionality." (Von Wright, 1963; Coulter, 1980; and Dennett, 1983). The intentional idiom is the language used when one gives reasons for things that one has done or plans to do. A person's accounts of actions refer to such attributes as his/her beliefs about the world, purposes or intentions, wants and desires, and the rules of conduct he/she abides by at any given time.

The focus on the intended interpretation is consistent with what Clark and Clark (1977) call the "intentional view of comprehension." On this view there is a distinction between the literal or direct meaning of a statement and the intended interpretation of that statement uttered in a particular context. Because of this, the interviewer must process speech at the level of the *idea.* This feature of the procedure is discussed in the following section on the ACTS analysis.

The ACTS Analysis

We call the procedure a thematic reduction. (The theoretical foundation for this method is found in Lazzara, 1985.) The interview is transcribed verbatim, and we search the protocol text for thematic structures which are uncovered in an analysis of ordinary language elements contained in verbal accounts of learning project actions. The important thematic level of a learning project protocol is that of the reasoned explanations a person gives for what he/she is doing or did while engaging in project actions. At this level, such themes represent the underlying reasons that drive such actions.

The thematic reduction has four stages called atomizing, categorizing, thematizing, and schematizing (hence, the "ACTS" analysis). In the first stage, the transcript is segmented into intended ideas, or "atoms." "Sentences" as such are not obvious units which exist on the surface of a verbal message. People use speech not only to communicate, but also to formulate their ideas as they go along. Because they do not generally speak in well-formed "sentences," it is often difficult to decide exactly where one sentence starts and another stops in a written transcript of spoken conversation. The analyst is therefore faced with the problem of identifying the interpretation *intended* by the interviewee.

We derive the intended interpretation of an utterance from a contextual analysis of the surface structure of the protocol. This means that we use the general information contained in the transcript (the context) to help us decide what a person means by some statement when that statement is not altogether clear or when it has more than one possible interpretation. If a statement does not capture the intended idea, it is paraphrased by the analyst so that it does. We adhere to the following rule for paraphrasing: Any paraphrase which necessarily alters the wording of an utterance must be supportable by evidence about the speaker's intentions derived from the overall context. Most of the changes that are made in transcribed statements will be structural, such as: (1) conjunctive phrases are separated into atoms; (2) incomplete ideas are completed on the basis of contextual references; (3) false starts are eliminated; (4) embedded sentences are extracted from their context and paraphrased as separate atoms. At this level of description an atom which is a paraphrase is just as "valid" as a literal transcription. A paraphrase is arrived at by a coder (or group of coders) who is (are) trained to a suitably high level of reliability with respect to agreement on paraphrasing.

In the second stage (categorizing), each atom is placed into one of five ordinary language categories: beliefs, wants, norms, intentions and facts. In giving an argument for something, a person will speak in terms of what they believe, what they want, what norms they follow and what they conclude or intend to do, as well as citing factual information. In ordinary language then, these expressions comprise a built in category system. The categorization of atoms is the simple act of identifying an atom as belonging to one of these ordinary language categories.

This list of categorized atoms is the data base from which the material for the third and fourth stages of the reduction is drawn. In the third stage (thematizing), each category of the data base is examined for natural and logical connections among those atoms that together form an argument or justification for some action. The process of reduction thus far has eliminated redundancy and tangential information and has reorganized the data so they can be more easily analyzed. Reasons that remain are now examined in terms of their interrelationships with one another, and how they form the structure of the person's argument in favor of taking certain actions in order to accomplish learning project tasks.

In the final stage (schematizing), the atoms making up an argument are linked together in the form of a diagram that displays the logical structure of the argument. This step is a structural analysis and focuses on the learner's reasoning. The complexity of practical arguments is such that they have various argument threads (reasons, intentions) dispersed throughout the fabric of the conversation (interview) in which they are presented. The analyst's task is that of bringing these threads together without violating the intent of the speaker. The procedure involved is similar to Nolt's (1984) procedure for analyzing practical arguments, which involves identifying the structure of complex arguments that characterize ordinary discourse, and uncovering both verbally expressed and hidden premises, i.e., unspoken reasons for actions. (In any analysis of arguments, it is necessary to make explicit any part of an argument which has been left unstated.) After the interview is completely analyzed, the process can be repeated using the hidden premises as probes for further and more detailed reasoning about background assumptions.

Whereas the ordinary language categories, at one level, gave us a picture of the content of reasons associated with an action, the diagramming process results in a picture of the structure of reasons. Taken together, the two provide a model of the adult as learner. The resulting model is, in essence, a depiction of the learner's reasoning pattern or rule structure applied to a specific learning project situation.

Conclusion

The data this procedure analyzes are the self reports of a learner. Self reports are generally considered to be subject to various kinds of bias. If a person is asked whether he or she has learned something, the subject is likely to take the perceived views of the interviewer into account in answering, and even then, questions arise as to whether the subject understands what it means to "learn." There is, therefore, an inherent risk that an external structure of interpretation will be imposed on the responses by the mere presence of the questioner. A procedure that constrains the imposition of such biases is needed, and the procedure should be principled (Lazzara, 1985). That is, the procedure should assure that the analyst does not impose a model of the learner's approach "from the outside". Instead, the model that is generated of the learner's methods should accurately represent the learner's view of the dialog with the learning situation. The procedure presented here does provide a way to construct an intentional model of a learner which represents his/her implicit reasoning structure relative to specific learning project tasks. When a learner is describing reasons for some concrete action, and where reasons are reflections of rules used, the issue of whether the subject is trying to create a favorable impression or is giving inaccurate information is minimized since the rules given are either coherent in the context of other rules given, or they are not. The real risk in such situations is that the interviewer's questions do not provide an adequate framework for stimulating the learner to reflect on accomplished reasoning.

Some advantages to employing the procedure include (1) the procedure is mechanical, and therefore can be learned as such; (2) hidden assumptions (or tacit knowledge) are accessible through the procedure; (3) the overall assumptions (reasons) driving actions can be made explicit; (4) the procedure is "subjectively rigorous," that is, there is an openness to the approach, yet it is guided by rigorous principles of interviewing and analysis; and (5) other data, such as numbers of actions taken and types of references used can be extracted from the interview protocols. Disadvantages include (1) considerable training time is required of interviewers and analysts; (2) the analysis itself is laborious and extremely time consuming; (3) it is difficult to gather data from large samples; and (4) the procedure needs additional "testing" in a variety of populations.

References

Boshier, R. (April, 1983). "Adult learning projects research: An alchemist's fantasy." Invited address to American Educational Research Association, Montreal.

Brookfield, S. D. (1986). Understanding and facilitating adult learning: A comprehensive analysis of principles and effective practice. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brookfield, S. D. (1988). "Conceptual, methodological and practical ambiguities in self-directed learning." In, Long, S. and Associates (Ed.) Self-directed learning: Application & theory. Athens, GA.: Adult Education Department of The University of Georgia.

Caffarella, R. S. and O'Donnell, J. M. (1988). "Research in self-directed learning: Past, present, and future trends." In Self-directed learning: Application & theory.

Clark, H. H., and Clark, Eve V. (1977), Psychology and language, New York: Harcourt, Brace & Jovanovich.

Coulter, J. (1979). The Social construction of mind. Totowa, NJ: Rowman and Littlefield.

Dennett, D. (1983). Intentional systems in cognitive ethology: The "Panglossian" paradigm defended. The Behavioral and Brain Sciences. New York. Cambridge University Press.

Gouldner, A. (1967). Enter Plato. Boston: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Guglielmino, L. M. (1978). "Development of the self-directed learning readiness scale." (Doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia), Dissertation Abstracts International, 38, 6467A.

Guglielmino, L. M., and Guglielmino, P. (1988) "Self-directed learning in business and industry." In Self-directed learning: Application and Theory.

Harre, R., and Secord, P. F. (1972). The explanation of social behavior. Oxford, Blackwell.

Lazzara, P.J. (1985). Foundations for a method for knowledge analysis. (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation), University of Tennessee.

Nolt, J.E. (1984). Informal logic: possible worlds and imagination. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Spear, G. (1988). "Beyond the organizing circumstances: A search for methodology for the study of self-directed learning." In Self-directed learning: Application and theory

Tough, A. M. (1979). The adult's learning projects. Austin, Texas: Learning Concepts.

Von Wright, G. H. (1963). Norm and Action. New York: The Humanities Press.

Methodological Problems of Small Scale Community Based Action Research

Jane Pillinger
Department of Adult and Continuing Education
University of Leeds

Abstract

This paper looks at the methodological framework drawn up for a community based action research project that developed and monitored new technology courses initially for women and later for other disadvantaged groups whose access to new technology courses is limited or restricted. It offers a possible model that integrates the use of both qualitative and quantitative data that can be used to develop and evaluate courses for disadvantaged groups.

Introduction

The Women and New Technology Project at Leeds University (January 1986-April 1988) was set up as a result of a call for innovative projects from the Department of Education and Science. The need for adult educators to innovate in the teaching of new technology was emphasised, especially where this related to the teaching of under- represented client groups, where science and new technology could be made more popular for adults with an emphasis on the social effects of new technology. At this time it was also clear that important trends in liberal adult education were focussing on the special needs of women (and other disadvantaged groups). Trends in women's education (for example New Opportunities for Women) had shown that women positively benefit from an environment that is sensitive to their needs and that draws upon their own life experiences (Thompson 1983). The Project also drew on the increasing use of new technology in education and the need to offer an educational response to the explosion of new technologies. Overall the aim was educational innovation, whereby courses would be geared towards the particular needs of disadvantaged groups. Crucial to this was that these courses would be monitored and evaluated and that models be developed for dissemination to other adult educators.

The Project ran in two phases. The first phase focussed on the setting up, evaluation and curriculum development of courses for women. Courses were geared to the particular needs that women have, for example, for child care, for locally based courses that ran at times that were convenient for them. In addition we wanted to overcome many of the feelings of alienation and nervousness that women expressed in relation to technology. The second phase grew out of the methods used in the first phase to develop courses for other disadvantaged groups (eg the disabled, elderly, ethnic minorities etc).

The exclusion of women from technology developments and indeed the absence of women from many computing and new technology courses has been widely demonstrated (Zukas, 1986; Faulkner and Arnold, 1985). With an established tradition of courses for women running in Leeds, we were able to develop on some of the models for setting up courses for women. Indeed this gave us an important impetus to setting up phase one of the project, where it was clear that positive steps needed to be taken to encourage women to attend such courses. However, our knowledge in relation to other disadvantaged groups was less well demonstrated. Nevertheless, we found that a similar model to that developed in phase one was also applicable to phase two, in relation to other disadvantaged groups whose access to technology was limited for a variety of reasons.

Research Design

The research design was geared towards action research. Since the project was not monitoring existing courses, nor testing a pre-determined hypothesis, a particular method had to be adopted that integrated the setting up of courses with other agencies in the community with the monitoring of teaching methods, student responses and tutor inputs. The innovative focus of the project had to balance these demands against those of a small scale project that had a limited time span. Whilst a number of different approaches were necessary to the research design (both in terms of the need for both qualitative and quantitative data) the integration of these methods was less problematic that was initially thought.

From the start the research highlighted four areas of inquiry: 1) The development of a method for setting up community based courses, that focussed on inter-agency links and that were geared to the needs of the client group.
2) The content and curriculum of the courses, in an attempt to develop a method for the integration of the learning of practical skills within a liberal adult education perspective. 3) Teaching methodology, in particular how this was geared to the particular needs of the different client groups. 4) The outcome of the courses in terms of both student and tutor responses and experiences of them.
The research concentrated on three areas of inquiry, that appeared to fulfil the aims highlighted above, for which distinct and varied methods were adopted:

1. **The setting up of courses:** This part of the project relied largely on the collection of quantitative data on who courses were set up with and the level of back up and support; the socio-economic, racial background to the area; target audiences and their recruitment to courses; the timing of courses; attendance and reasons for leaving courses; and students educational, employment and family backgrounds, age etc.

2. Content and curriculum of courses: This part of the project put greater emphasis on qualitative data collected in conjunction with part-time tutor support and development; tutor interviews; teaching methods and approach used; the level of courses according to the area in which they were run and the use of resources.

3. Student interviews: Again this part of the project emphasised the collection of qualitative data based in part on questionnaires given to students at the beginning and end of each course in addition to informal group interviews with students. Here specific issues were addressed including expectations of the courses and how these had been fulfilled; levels of support from the group and attitude to the groups; levels of interest; reasons for attending the courses; attitudes towards the course being designed for a particular client group (eg for women, with a woman tutor, or for the deaf with a deaf tutor etc); the impact of the group on levels of confidence both at an educational and personal level; and finally where the courses could lead students in the future.

The collection of quantitative (and some qualitative) data in the questionnaires was fairly straightforward. However, the collection of some of the more detailed qualitative data posed a problem for a project that had limited resources for detailed student and tutor interviews. Prompted by our feminist backgrounds, we were concerned to move away from conventional models of interviews, and developed a method that brought students and tutors into central positions. Here, feminist theory played a key role in determining that the researcher was a visible and central part of the way in which the information and data was shaped and influenced (Stanley and Wise 1983). Likewise, the researcher moved into an interactive position as a participant in the group, in an attempt to break down the barriers between the researcher and the student. Informal group interviews and discussions were used with both students and tutors, and this approach was able to avoid the pitfalls of conventional research, so often ill-suited to studying women's experiences.

Whilst the lack of time (one half-time researcher) made this an appealing method, it is clear that it offered a number of other advantages. In the first phase of the project the researcher made herself visible to students, meeting them informally at various intervals during the courses, and involving them in the project as much as possible. At the end of each course informal groups discussions were organised, here the researcher participated in discussion, leading it and prompting questions only where necessary. This approach enabled a broad range of issues to be discussed in an environment (where students and researcher were familiar with each other) that perhaps would never have been elicited from questionnaires or individual interviews. The

---

(1954) provided five units for content analysis: words, themes, characters, items, and space-time measures. A close study of the frequent use of words in the two sources under discussion here can elucidate pervasive attitudes or values from a particular time period or culture. Heuristic study of recurrent themes as well as character analyses can reveal, for instance, how stereotypes or particular beliefs are developed and depicted through time, in certain geographic locales, or in cross- cultural settings without the obtrusive/reactive threats to data so common in the use of human subjects as sources of data. Item analysis, "the study of an entire production" (Merriam and Simpson, 1984, p. 138), such as an entire novel or biography, can provide parallel sets of data on the three units discussed thus far. In contrast, precise measures on attitudes and emphases can be obtained through the analysis of the repeated use of certain words, images or phrases as they appear by space-and-time through texts.

Case Study and Grounded Theory

The previous methods/applications basically deal descriptively with "content seen." However, case study and grounded theory permit a deeper level of analysis. Nuance and connotation can be studied in fiction and in autobiographies with case study and grounded theory (although the potential for this level of analysis with objective biographies and historical studies is clearly limited). With these two methodologies, the investigator can begin to "get 'inside' the characters" (Merriam, 1983, p. 5)-- "inside" their perspectives and inner thoughts. McKenzie (1975) was advocating the use of fiction as a "species of case study" (p. 7). To use his example, the study of youth coming to adulthood in selected bildungsroman novels, Joyce's Portrait of an Artist as a Young Man reveals coming of age process using content seen as well as the apparent influences of Irish culture and Catholicism on the young protagonist, Stephen Dedalus. By contrast, using the inductive, discovery approach of grounded theory, new theory can be derived in the field. Merriam, for instance, (1980) used grounded theory to develop theory on "restructuring" in male mid-life using such fictional works as Fitzgerald's Tender is the Night, Miller's Death of a Salesman and Bellow's Herzog. In these, the protagonists' own perspectives were utilized as well as the more expository data in the novels. This depth of study could be achieved through autobiographies as well since the perspective of the central character is also available in this source.

Phenomenology

Phenomenology calls for the "pristine innocence of first seeing" (Spiegelberg, 1960, pp.666-667). By utilizing Spiegelberg's (1960) seven methodological steps for conducting phenonenology, the "reality" seen by the central characters in fiction and autobiographies can provide a systematically derived set of essences from the viewpoint of characters. This can be contrasted with the world around the characters, both within the works themselves and in the actual context that the works were written in. Quigley (1987) utilized phenomenology to investigate the theme of resistance to schooling by young adults and apply the findings to adult literacy and basic education programs in North America. I examined schooling resisters such as Huck Finn, Studs Lonigan and Holden Caulfield to assertain their values and development of their perspectives on schools and contrasted these with the view of those around them. This could have been done with autobiographies if the canon of sufficiency permitted.

It is suggested that no other qualitative methodology can promise this degree of immediacy or insight into a subject's perspective with such a degree of unobtrusive analysis as that afforded by phenomenology.

merits were based on the reinforcing nature of the group in each case. Often women were seen to display a collective response to questions posed, and indeed this was of significance in understanding the ways in which courses had been run on a collective basis and often collectively experienced. Moreover, this became more apparent when related to the earlier collection of quantitative data, since the social mix on each course (organised within local communities close to where the various groups live) was very similar. It appeared that this method had worked, and indeed was confirmed in the similarity of responses from courses from a whole variety of locations, that locally based courses, geared to specific groups had attracted a new group of people into adult education.

Thus, it became clear that the need to combine both qualitative and quantitative research methods could be demonstrated from the limitations of an exclusive emphasis on any one method. Thus while it was important to have quantitative data on students backgrounds, this needed to be integrated into a qualitative framework that looked at why some courses were more successful than others, how the students actually experienced the courses and how their expectations may well have been very different than those of the set down by the University.

The Outcome of Courses

The overall outcome demonstrated the clear need for courses specifically aimed at women, the elderly, the disabled and ethnic minority groups. Initially we asked students their reasons for attending a course. It was very clear all groups expressed feelings of having been 'left behind', of ignorance, and of alienation and lack of confidence in their relation to new technology. New technology was seen as something that had been 'taken over' by men in particular, but also by younger people. One women put it this way:

> "It was an opportunity for me to become enlightened in computing - a good number of people from school kids to businessmen have 'know-how' and I feel I'm being left behind".

In addition we also wanted to monitor the effectiveness or running courses that were designed for a specific group. 81% of women attending women-only groups felt that it made a positive difference having a course just for women, reasons given ranged feelings that the presence of men in the group would be intimidating and a hindrance, would make women feel inferior, embarrassed, threatened, intimidated, dominated and nervous. For instance one woman attending a women-only course said:

> "If feel confident and able to cope without being embarrassed if I don't understand".

Another expressed that:

> "I feel on equal terms with those in the class".

Other reasons given were that women-only groups engender support and a relaxed atmosphere that it not competitive:

> "Because women are easier to talk to and have a lot in common".
>
> "It makes women feel valuable and worth it".

Moreover, a similar response was given to a woman-tutor, who was seen to be understanding of the problems women may face in their lives, more sympathetic, and less intimidating. One woman expressed a very common response:

> "A female tutor is more sensitive to the problems women have in the field of computing. It is more encouraging to talk to someone who has overcome the particular hurdles to women".

Responses from other courses run for specific groups followed a similar pattern. Many of them were related to confidence and special needs in relation to learning difficulties (this was particularly expressed by courses for the elderly and the disabled who felt they learnt at a slower pace than younger or able-bodied people). For the courses run specifically for ethnic minority women, these often related to language difficulties, but also to the shared experiences within the groups of the particular problems faced of living in a racist society.

The demand for all of the courses was far higher than we had expected and indeed many of the courses could have recruited several times over. The project has been able to dispel some of the myths associated with who is interested in new technology. We found an overwhelming response from all groups, demonstrating a high level of interest. Moreover, such groups would not have participated in courses run under the traditional model of adult education.

One inherent conflict of the project from the start was the need to balance the overall aims of University liberal adult education with those of running courses for specific groups in the community. Our aim was to focus on areas of the city where women, disabled people, elderly people and ethnic minority groups had limited access to adult education. It was clear that levels of educational background and literacy would be lower than those normally anticipated for University adult education classes. Indeed, levels of educational background and confidence were low at the start of many of the courses. In phase one of the project many of the women recruited to women-only courses had been out of the educational system since they were 13 or 14 years old (many of these women were over 35 years old).

Our justification for running what may be considered 'lower level' courses was made on the basis of the innovatory nature of the project. Indeed, one aim was to ensure that other agencies (particularly the Local Authority), use the experiences of the project to run courses for themselves in the future, using the models we had tried and tested. Since the project was for a limited time span it was a logical use of the research and development work carried out.

Other inherent difficulties were posed by the conflicts between the demands of the University and those faced by the individual students attending our courses. One clear result from the project showed that a one year course (2 hours per week) was insufficient to prepare students for further courses in new technology that were not geared to their specific needs. Moreover, one year seemed insufficient for a real grasp of the subject in a way that it could be used to generate both confidence and be utilised for other goals (eg employment or further training). We ran several second year courses for women who had attended one year. These women expressed their overall need for a second year to build up confidence to tackle problems in new technology on an individual basis and to consolidate (without losing) work carried out in the first year. We had, in our design of the project, over-estimated that extent to which one year would prepare students for more in-depth, academically based work.

Conclusions

The research design developed to evaluate the project enabled full use of a variety of methods that clearly are of benefit to small scale action research. The initial model used for women was successfully used for other disadvantaged groups (for physically disabled people, deaf people, ethnic minority women and elderly people). The same balance of qualitative and quantitative methods were used and overall similar results found amongst all groups.

It appears that under-represented and disadvantaged client groups positively benefit from courses geared to their special needs. Moreover, if these can be run within local areas it has been shown that demand is likely to be high, that these groups will utilise courses that they perhaps would not have considered attending if they had been run using the traditional model of University adult education.

References

W Faulkner & E Arnold (1985) Smothered by Invention: Technology in Women's Lives Pluto Press
L Stanley and S Wise (1983) Breaking Out: Feminist Consciousness and Feminist Research Routledge & Kegan Paul.
J Thompson (1983) Learning Liberation Routledge & Kegan Paul
M Zukas (1986) 'Women in New Technology: a Feminist Perspective' in S Bostock & R Seifert (eds) Microcomputers in Adult Education Croom Helm

CROSS-CULTURAL RELEVANCE OF SELECTED PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES ON LEARNING

Daniel D. Pratt, University of British Columbia, Canada

ABSTRACT

This paper is part of a larger research project investigating the utility of behavioural, cognitive, and humanistic perspectives on learning across cultures. Results of interviews with Native Indians from Canada suggest that psychological theories may be less than totally adequate and appropriate for understanding Native conceptions of learning and teaching.

INTRODUCTION

To a large extent, North American adult educators view learning as primarily a psychological phenomenon with three broad perspectives dominating those views: Behaviourism, cognitivism, and humanism. Although each perspective derives from different philosophical assumptions about knowledge and learners they all tend to emphasize a highly individualized view of learning and personal development. Additionally, each perspective is, by-and-large, presented as culture-free and not dependent upon context for its utility in understanding and predicting learning. Adult educators have, at one time or another, embraced each of these perspectives as a guiding theoretical framework for planning and conducting educational programs, and evaluating learners within those programs.

Recently, several North American institutions have begun exporting programs and personnel to other countries and cultures. Much of the programmatic material and the format for delivering these programs is based upon theoretical and philosophical frameworks that are derived from or congruent with one or more of the above mentioned psychological perspectives on learning. In turn, these perspectives are themselves reflections of the norms and values of the dominant culture within North America.

This paper is part of an on-going research project which is investigating the relative "fit" between these traditional psychological perspectives and various host cultures within and outside of North America. The cultures under investigation include, Chinese, Hong Kong, and Native Indian from the Yukon Territories of Canada. The sample represents a wide range of ages (18-86), education (primary to post-graduate), and occupation (factory workers to physicians). Because of space limitations, this paper will deal only with findings related Native Indians from the Yukon.

METHODOLOGY

Interviews were conducted with forty-four Native Indians. Where possible, interviews were conducted in the respondent's first language and usually in their home or place of work. All the interviews were conducted by co-researchers who are either working in the North with Native people, or are themselves Native. All interviewers were trained by the principal researcher and all transcripts of interviews were analysed by at least two members of the research team. Questions dealt with three issues: (1) A recent attempt to learn something; (2) the respondent's understanding of the word "learning"; and (3) A "memorable" teacher. Interviews lasted 30-45 minutes.

Transcripts were analysed using a constant-comparative method, looking for conceptual themes related to learning and teaching. Themes were extracted from each interview and compared across interviews. Where possible, summaries of the interviews were taken back to the respondents, or a similar group, for verification of data and thematic interpretations. We tried to be as clear and consistent with the respondents' language as possible in this process, though at times the results fell short of our intentions. Finally, each theme was analysed for its "fit" with one or more of the above mentioned psychological perspectives on learning.

FINDINGS

Conceptions of Learning

Four themes dominated the thinking of our respondents. The first two (L-1 and L-2) were present in ninety percent of the interviews with Native people. L-3 and L-4 were expressed by over half of the respondents. No other theme was consistently mentioned by more than twenty percent of those interviewed.

L-1. Learning has to have meaning.

> "You make up your mind, certain things you want to learn it and you'll learn it... you choose what you need to learn."
> "If it's something I want to know, then I can learn it."
> "Learning means to understand and know it so well that it becomes a part of you."

L-2. Learning comes through experience and observation.

> "... you really learn by watching, by using your other senses, by hearing ... you didn't do much in terms of talking... the silence was there. There wasn't any classroom talk."
> "I learned lots but didn't realize I was learning ... It's an everyday thing, it's not hard. Indian schools aren't hard. It's everyday, almost twenty-four hours a day."

L-3. Learning is holistic -- it involves all parts of one's existence.

> "Everyday you learn something, either about yourself or about someone else."
> "Learning isn't a one-shot thing ... learning is a continuous thing."
> "It was part of everything ... was whole and not just artificial.

L-4. Learning that is important is that which can be passed on to others.

> "What I learn, I must pass on to the next generation... it becomes valuable and good enough for the next generation."
>
> "I'm going to pass it on to somebody else."
>
> "It's not important unless it can be passed on to someone else."

These themes are not the only themes voiced by Native people, but they are the ones most consistently mentioned. Thus, while they may not capture the full picture of Native Indians' conceptions of learning they suggest important aspects of their experience and cultural values that shape the way they think about learning.

Conceptions of "Memorable" Teachers

Two themes were consistently expressed by Native respondents when describing a memorable teacher. As with learning, they were not the only themes expressed but were, by far, the most frequently mentioned.

T-1. A trusting and supportive relationship wherein the learners felt safe, respected, and reassured of their worth.

> "She helped me learn ... with her having confidence in me and showing that she cares has given me a lot of strength and courage to try and do something I've never done before ..."
>
> "She never gave up on me ... she never just shook her head and walked away from me ... she was always there for me."

T-2. A knowledgeable teacher; one that embodied the spirit and manner of what was being taught -- a person who exemplified what he/she was teaching and could express it at a level and in language appropriate to the learner.

> "She could relate to the way I could learn ... she wasn't technical in her teaching ... so when I say a feeling kind of person, that could make sense out of something that looked really complicated, she could just bring it right down to where I feel it and I can feel what she's actually saying."
>
> "Simplicity... a lot of it was getting out into it... the bush ... and he would, point to, maybe a branch that was chewed up or leaves were broken ... explain right there, but it wasn't a real long explanation. Watching him, there wasn't a real wordy explanation."

These two themes appeared in approximately eighty percent of the interviews. In contrast, no other theme was common to more than twenty-five percent of the interviews.

DISCUSSION

As would be expected, no single perspective on learning captures all the themes and implications arising from these interviews. In addition, some themes are not well explained by any of the psychological perspectives on learning. However, the work of three theorists may be useful in understanding the conceptions of learning and teaching expressed by our Native respondents.

L-1: Learning has to have meaning.

Ausubel's subsumption theory (1968) suggests that meaningful learning is more likely to result from careful consideration of the learner's prior knowledge and perceived need for the new content. As a result, new learning can be facilitated through the use of advance organizers that will bridge between what the learner knows and what is to be learned. In a recent review of Native Indian learning styles, More (1987) makes this same point and provides greater detail regarding its implications within Native communities.

L-2: Learning comes through experience and observation; and T-2: The teacher embodied the spirit of what was taught.

When respondents talked about learning through observation, and learning from people who were competent and congruent with what they were teaching, they talked about learning to "be like them". These conceptions of learning and teaching match what Bandura (1986) suggests about observational learning and role modeling.

> The highly functional patterns, which constitute the proven skills and established customs of a culture, are adopted in essentially the same form as they are portrayed... Through the process of abstract modeling, observers extract the rules underlying specific performances for generating behavior that goes beyond what they have seen or heard...In abstract modeling, judgmental skills and generalizable rules are being learned by observation. (p. 100)

Recent research on Native learning styles by Bryant (1986) and Karlebach (1986) confirms the significance of these findings. For example, the Native tendency toward a "Listen- or Watch-Then-Do" approach is exemplified in the telling of legends and is an effective means of encoding values. This form of imagery, rather than word association, is in a form that can be revisited by the learner as she/he reaches further stages of development and sees deeper and richer meaning in the symbols.

T-1: A trusting and supportive relationship.

A third perspective that fits with our respondents' conceptions of a memorable teacher is that of Carl Rogers (1983) facilitative relationship between learner and teacher. However, it should be noted that almost all respondents selected either a parent, grandparent, or community elder as their most memorable teacher.

This may be the result of several factors, e.g., that many had been placed in "residential schools" at an early age; that most of our respondents had less than a high school education and therefore, few school teachers; and that within the culture, elders are a source of wisdom. Thus, we are cautious in interpreting this finding.

While some themes are congruent with the traditional psychological views on learning and teaching, some ways of thinking about these matters may be more readily understood through sociology than psychology.

L-3: Learning is holistic and is involved in all parts of life.

As one of our interviewers pointed out, this holistic conception of learning is consistent with the Indian medicine wheel. The centre of the wheel has four interactive levels -- the individual, family, community, and world. Native elders teach that a human being has four interrelated capacities -- physical, emotional, spiritual, and mental. Any change in one of the parts will cause a change in the others which will then influence the individual's ability to keep in balance. Research over the past decade on Native learners supports the contention that a holistic or global approach to learning is common within the Native culture (e.g., Kleinfeld 1975; More 1987).

L-4: Important learning is that which can be passed on to others.

The idea that learning can only be evaluated when viewed from a collective rather than an individual perspective seemed particularly important to us, especially in combination with L-3. It suggested that, for many, learning was not an individual phenomenon but a societal one and that some kind of benefit or worth must be associated with the learning that surpassed the benefit to the individual. Learning was/is valuable to the extent that it benefits the collective.

None of the psychological perspectives on learning takes that position. Quite the contrary. The psychological perspectives which dominate adult education literature in North America are stridently individualistic, presenting learning as a change in individual behaviour, cognition, or predisposition, but always within the ethos of the dominant individualistic culture of the United States. Indeed, as Spencer (1985) noted in her presidential address to the American Psychological Association, there is a strong relationship between individualism and self-concept within the American culture.

> The reason, perhaps, is that individualism is so central to the American character and its positive aspects so taken for granted that it is difficult to conceive of any alternative kind of self-conception...the very ideals of democracy and equality of opportunity initially flowed from and continue to be sustained by the concept of individualism. (pp.1287-8)

Thus, cultures with norms and values significantly different from those of the United States may find some difficulty in attempting to import these psychological perspectives. More importantly, it may be misleading for anyone interested in human learning to rely exclusively on psychological theories and perspectives which view learning as an individual phenomenon without due regard for the context and culture within which that learning is taking place. This may be especially so when the theories or perspectives are representative of a single dominant culture. These conclusions are tentatively borne out by findings in China as well.

REFERENCES

Ausubel, D.P. (1968). *Educational psychology: A cognitive view*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought & action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Bryant, H.W. (1986). *An investigation into the effectiveness of two strategy training approaches on the reading achievement of grade one Native Indian students*. Unpublished dissertation, University of British Columbia, Vancouver.

Karlebach, D.G. (1986). *A cognitive framework for deriving and interpreting learning style differences among a group of intermediate grade Native and non-Native pupils*. Unpublished dissertation, University of British Columbia, Vancouver.

Kleinfeld, J.S. (1975). Effective teachers of Eskimo and Indian students. *School Review*. *83*, 301-344.

More, A.J. (1987). Native Indian learning styles: A review for researchers and teachers. Paper presented at the World Conference: Indigenous Peoples' Education, Vancouver.

Rogers, C. (1983). *Freedom to learn for the 80's. Columbus*, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company.

Spence, J.T. (1985). Achievement American style: The rewards and costs of individualism. *American Psychologist*. *40*(12), 1285-1295.

SYSTEMATIZING FICTION AND NON-FICTION AS SOURCES OF DATA FOR ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH

B. ALLAN QUIGLEY

ABSTRACT: Fiction and non-fiction have been used extensively in other disciplines as research sources but little has been done to systematize it for use in adult education. This paper addresses four issues considered prerequisite to systematization of fiction and non-fiction: respective validity/reliability of these sources; inherent limitations; appropriate applications and methodologies; points for further inquiry.

In 1975, Leon McKenzie stated, "If the inquiry process vis-a-vis literary analysis can be systematized, whole new fields of research will open up for the adult educator, and knowledge about adult[s]...will be expanded in a way that is uniquely humanistic" (p. 215). Although disciplines such as sociology and psychology have used literature extensively for decades, (eg. Escarpit, 1965; Freud, 1900; Lawrence & Swingewood, 1972; Shrodes, Van Gundy & Husband, 1943), the application of these data sources has been extremely limited in the field of adult education. Merriam has stated that fiction permits reader insights which are "more powerful, more real, than those that can be obtained from factual data" (1983, p.5). Hunter and Harman (1979) noted that researchers working in the area of adult illiteracy tend to simplify complex lives into statistics and problems (p. 55) and called for the use of non-fiction to "obtain a truer picture, or at least a fuller understanding" (p.55) of illiteracy. Researchers such as Glaser and Strauss (1967) named fiction for use with grounded theory; Spiegelberg (1960) suggested its use with phenomenology. Yet, thirteen years after McKenzie's call for systematization, little has been done to systematize fiction or non-fiction for use in the field.

The intent of this paper is to consider four questions which may be considered prerequisite to the systematization of fiction and non-fiction: 1) Can literary fiction and non-fiction be considered valid and reliable sources of data, 2) what might the limitations of these two data sources be and how might these limitations be addressed, 3) which research applications/methodologies might be applied to fiction and non-fiction, and 4) what further inquiry remains on this topic?

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Cunningham (1958) has noted that verification takes place within two parameters: the concrete and the abstract. Whereas validity claims within the concrete parameter normally utilize replicable, often measurable, data which indicate isomorphism between the subject studied and the study outcomes, the abstract parameter is much more dependent on judgement as to the adequacy of the evidence to support a validity claim. Berger (1977) has said the outcomes must "ring true"(p.6) to be judged valid. The first judgements in qualitative research are made by the investigator. As Merriam has noted, "validity...must be assessed in terms of the interpretation of the investigator's experience" (in press). The further levels of judgement will be based on whether or not the investigator has adequately and accurately reconstructed the "multiple constructions" (Guba and Lincoln, 1985, p.296) of reality. Since, as Ratcliffe (1983) has

---

B. ALLAN QUIGLEY is Assistant Professor and Regional Director, Adult Education. Penn State University, Monroeville, PA.

noted, "data do not speak for themselves; there is always an interpreter, or translater" (p. 149), the skill and ability of the investigator is critical if the "truth value" (Guba and Lincoln, 1985) reflected in qualitative data is to ultimately be judged valid.

If the investigator's interpretations "ring true" time over time--if they can be deemed repeatable and consistent through continuous, varied examinations--they may also be judged reliable by external examiners. On validity and reliability, as Zaner (1970) in phenomenology has stated, "Any evident insight must be essentially repeatable, both by oneself and by others [italics added]" (p. 195).

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY IN FICTION AND NON-FICTION

The need for validity and reliability of both data and interpretation has been apparent, at least intuitively, to novelists, poets, dramatists, and authors of non-fiction through time. Authors of fiction have had the reputation as the "best observers" of the human condition for centuries and successful biographers and historians would not have long been accepted as the chroniclers and interpreters of people and events. In both cases, for the works to be considered successful in their fields, the validity of data used and the truth value arising from authorial interpretations of that data must "ring true" to external examiners. To endure and succeed, authorial interpretations and insights must be capable of repeatability through time by countless readers--often reading in translation on various continents as well. Thus, the perspective and interpretations contained in fiction and non-fiction must ring true--must be judged as valid--and must prove reliable through countless readings through time.

Writers such as Robert Frost have clearly demonstrated that the validity of an author's perceptions and interpretations will have to withstand the judgement of their readers. In a letter to his friend, J.T. Bartlett, for instance, Frost noted, "In literature it is our business to give the people the thing that will make them say, 'Oh yes I know what you mean'" (cited in Scully, 1965). Joseph Conrad, in 1897, made a similar assertion, "My task which I am trying to achieve is, by the power of the written word to make you hear, to make you feel--it is, before all, to make you see" (cited in Stevick, 1967). To assure validity, to "ring true" and withstand scrutiny by readers, Conrad was acutely aware that the successful writer of fiction must perceive the world and the truth value in it in a way which would be considered true. As he said, "[Literature] is an attempt to find...in those aspects of matter and in the facts of life, what of each is fundamental, what is enduring and essential--their one illuminating and convincing quality--the very truth of their existance" (cited in Stevick, 1967). Conrad stated that the author, "like the scientist, seeks the truth and makes his appeal" (cited in Stevick, 1967).

Although far from the only criterion for success, fictional literature deemed true literature has typically endured the test (re-test) of time and countless readings. This point was made as early as the first century A.D. in the literary classic, On the Sublime, believed written by Longinus, "That is really great which bears a repeated examination, and which it is difficult or rather impossible to withstand, and the memory of which is strong and hard to efface" (cited in Smith and Parks, 1967).

While the biographer, autobiographer and historian typically have data which are more conventionally re-testable and available to review, in fact the data selected as well as the interpretations and truth value offered by authors of fiction and non-fiction alike will stand or fall on the basis of validity and reliability judgements made by external readers through time. For purposes of Adult Education research, it is proposed that the question now to be addressed is whether and to what extent these data sources contain inherent limitations and what systematization can be utilized to ensure that the strong validity and reliability of these sources are not compromised in the research process?

LIMITATIONS

Although valid and reliable in the readership context discussed above, when the more exacting questions of research application are raised at least one salient limitation needs to be recognized and addressed in the case of fictional literature. Unlike most qualitative sources, including non-fiction, fictional literature sets out data as perceived and interpreted by another--in this case by the author. The researcher has no input to the derivation or construction of the data presented, no influence over the interpretations as contained in the fictional work and, beyond the validation discussed above, no further corroboration of data is possible. With non-fiction, the researcher can cross-validate data with other authors on the same topic or, in certain cases, can return to the primary data used. Research with fiction does not lend itself to "member checks" (Guba and Lincoln, 1981) with those who comprised the original study groups. The researcher working with fictional literature is effectively working with data and interpretations as given. Although, as Patton has said, qualitative research deals with "perspective rather than truth" (1980, p. 282), the question of authorial bias in the perspectives presented in fictional data must be accounted for.

Since validity as well as reliability of data are widely recognized to be strengthened when data are cross-referenced in multiple sources (eg. Guba and Lincoln, 1981), it is recommended that the investigator utilize such techniques as triangulation with a wide number of fictional works on the same topic and consider further cross-validation with other qualitative and/or quantitative sources to refine data. A second technique to address this point is to use "investigator position" (Merriam, in press). Here, the researcher outlines the assumptions, theoretical constructs, and overall position taken at the outset of the study in order that the external examiner may be cognizant of these throughout. In either case, the audit trail (Guba and Lincoln, 1981) of the investigation must be sufficiently clear and detailed to permit replication of the study by external examiners at a later date.

SYSTEMATIZATION

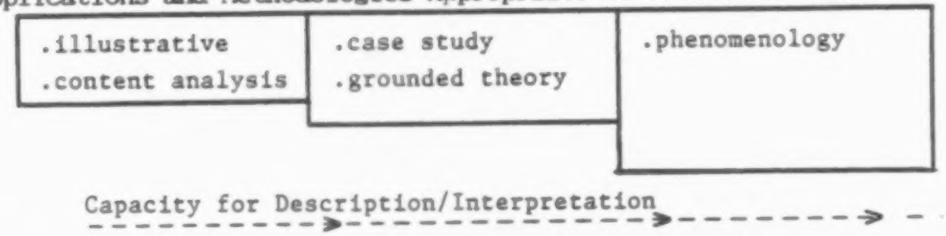
In working with fiction and non-fiction, three systematizing recommendations are made to ensure that validity of data is not compromised: 1) contextual data provision, 2) investigator expertise, and 3) selection techniques. Just as the "investigator position" puts the position taken by the investigator into context, the investigator should provide sufficient contextual data on the background of the works being used and on the authors involved to permit the external examiner to more fully appreciate the influences and events which may have affected the author's perspectives (McKenzie, 1975). This is recommended with both fiction and non-fiction. A second recommendation is that the investigator have expertise in working with fiction or non-fiction as well as expertise in the methodology being applied since, as will now be seen with the third recommendation, fiction and non-fiction have unique qualities.

The third recommendation deals with the critical question of selection of fictional and non-fictional works. McKenzie (1976) has provided a useful set of four selection criteria for fiction which may also be applied to non-fictional works: 1) The literary canon, 2) the canon of sufficiency, 3) the canon of relevance and, 4) the canon of clarity. On the first, the fiction chosen must qualify as true literature; similarly, non-fiction selected must be considered truly authoritative. This criterion can be met by consulting with experts in the field, such as faculty of English Departments or History Departments. The sufficiency canon says the work under study must contain adequate information on the theme under study. Here the experts in the field can again be of great assistance. The canon of relevance is where investigator expertise is needed to make judgements on whether data truly are relevant or if data are being construed to be "relevant". "Peer examination," review of decisions by others knowledgeable in the field, is the single most effective technique at the investigator's disposal to ensure that the decisions made on data may withstand scrutiny by others. To provide an adequate audit trail in the fulfillment of these criteria with both fiction and non-fiction, "constant quotation" from the text is recommended. Finally, Mckenzie's canon of clarity calls for the selection of data from the text which are clear and unambiguous and not, for instance, unduly symbolic or complex. This last canon has application to autobiographies as well as fiction. Investigator expertise and peer examinations are most helpful in fulfilling this criterion as well.

APPLICATIONS AND METHODOLOGIES

The question now becomes which methodologies/applications might be considered for use with fiction and non-fiction, and how these might be compared and contrasted? Clearly the range of choice is limited to those methods applicable to textual analysis and, in particular, to the following five methodologies/applications: illustrative application, content analysis, case study, grounded theory, and phenomenology. The relative capacity of each for description and interpretation with fiction and non-fiction can be demonstrated in the figure below:

Applications and Methodologies Appropriate to Fiction and Non-Fiction



Illustrative Application and Content Analysis

Patton (1980) referred to qualitative research as, "detailed description of situations, events, people interactions, and observed behaviour" (p. 22). Fiction and non-fiction are rich sources of data for purposes of illustrative description. Merriam (1983) used selections from 46 authors and poets in Themes of Adulthood Through Literature to illustrate a range of themes from adult development theory. Biographies and non-fiction, such as Oscar Lewis's La Vida or Elliot Lieborn's Tally's Corner would be similarly rich sources for illustrating such themes such as adult illiteracy. Fiction and non-fiction, such as biographies, would be rich sources for illustrating a wide range of themes,such as perspective transformation, gerontology and adult education, or the experience of minority groups or the blue collar worker in adult formal and informal learning environments. Despite its potential, illustrative application remains relatively unused in adult education research in North America.

Turning to content analysis, a singular advantage of this methodology is that it is "efficient, economical and can be done with a great deal of objectivity and reliability" (Merriam and Simpson, 1984. p. 139). Fiction and non-fiction are eminently suited for use with content analysis since both sources bear close analysis on a direct, objective level. Berelson

One of the most salient questions remaining concerns sufficiency. Can novellas, poetry, drama, or film be included and could these too be arranged on a continuum of application/interpretation capacity? Could a wider range of non-fiction than biographies, autobiographies, and history be considered and categorized? Secondly, editorial omniscient narrative permits very different insights than first person narrative or multi-levels of narrative. Might these also be categorized for systematization? What techniques might be employed to contrast fiction with non-fiction? While these are not the only questions remaining, if "whole new fields of research will open up...and knowledge about adult[s]...will be expanded" (McKenzie,p.215) through literature, it is proposed that such questions are well worth exploring.

REFERENCES

Berelson, B. (1954). Content analysis. In G. Lindzey & E. Aronson (Eds.), Handbook of social psychology. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, Ch. 16.

Berger, M. (1977). Real and imagined worlds. London: Harvard University Press.

Cunningham, H. (1958). Notes on epistomology. Bronx, N.Y: Fordham Press.

Escarpit, R. (1965). Sociology of literature. Chicago: Aldine.

Freud, S. (1961). The interpretation of dreams. New York: Science Editions.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). The discovery of grounded theory. Chicago: Aldine.

Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. (1981). Effective evaluation: Improving the usefulness of evaluation results through responsive and naturalistic approaches. San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.

Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. (1985). Naturalistic inquiry. Beverly Hills:Sage.

Hunter, C., & Harman, D. (1979). Adult illiteracy in the United States. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lawrence, D., & Swingewood, A. (1972), The sociology of literature. London: MacGibbon and Kee.

McKenzie, L. (1975). Analysis of bildungsroman as a research modality in adult education: An inquiry. Adult Education, 25, 209-216.

McKenzie, L. (1976, April). Literary life-cycle research as a an atypical research modality for adult education. Paper presented at the Adult Education Research Confernce, Toronto.

Merriam, S. (1980). Coping with male mid-life. Washington, D.C: University Press of America.

Merriam, S. (Ed.). (1983). Themes of adulthood through literature. New York: Teachers College Press.

Merriam, S. (in press). Case study research in education: A qualitative approach. San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S., & Simpson, E. (1984), A guide to research for educators and trainers of adults. Malabar, FL: Krieger.

Patton, M. (1980). Qualitative evaluation methods. Beverley Hills: Sage.

Quigley, A. (1987). The resisters: An analysis of non-participation in adult basic education (Doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois, 1986).

Ratcliffe, J. (1983, December). Notions of validity in qualitative research methodology. Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization, 5, 147-167.

Scully, J. (Ed.). (1965). Modern Poetics. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Shrodes, C.. Van Gundy, J., & Husband, R. (1943). Psychology through literature: An anthology. New York: Oxford University Press.

Smith, J., & Parks, E. (Eds.). (1967). The great critics (rev. ed.). New York: W.W. Norton.

Spiegelberg, H. (1960). The essentials of the phenomenological method. The Hague: Matinus Nijhoff.

Zaner, R. (1970). The way of phenomenology. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill.

The Potential Impacts of Technology on the Education of the Nontraditional Female Student

Melinda J. Rising*

ABSTRACT

In this study, a Delphi Technique was employed to elicit from a panel of experts a consensus list of impacts which telematics (the blending of telecommunications and computers) is likely to impose on the education of nontraditional female students through the year 2005. A "nontraditional student", as defined by the Commission on Nontraditional Study, is "part-time, older, and non-residential, often with home and occupational responsibilities."

Introduction

It is clear that because of shifting demographics and declining high school enrollments, higher education is beginning to take a more serious look at the adult learner. Technology has "freed" the adult learner from some obstacles to education but has also imposed some problems. While the population continues to age, and a trend toward escalating numbers of adults returning to the classroom for countless reasons seems apparent, technology continues to explode its changes. If higher education is going to respond to the needs of future adult learners, it seemed prudent to examine a relationship between the adult learner and technology.

For the purposes of this study, attention was focused on nontraditional female college students and the possible changes telematics might impact on that particular population in the future.

METHOD

Because of the future orientation of this study, a Delphi approach was employed for conducting the research. The purpose of the study was to produce a consensus among experts regarding the impacts, positive and negative, that technology might impose on nontraditional female students in the next eighteen years.

In this Delphi Technique, a panel of 25 experts was selected from the Commission of Professors of Adult and Continuing Education based on recommendations made by the Commission's Executive Committee. The Commission is part of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education, and appointment is predicated upon recommendation and approval of those who engage in instruction or research activities directed toward the preparation of adult education professionals and/or scholars.

Participants responded to a three-round process. Round I was open-ended, generating a list of 207 statements of possible impacts. From this list, the forty most frequently cited changes were compiled as a basis for Rounds II and III. For each item listed in Round II, participants were asked to assess the probability of occurrence (0%-100%) by each of three

*Dr. Rising, Dean of Academic Affairs at Briarwood College, Southington, Connecticut, completed her Ph.D. in Curriculum and Instruction in the fall from the University of Connecticut.

dates: 1995, 2000, 2005. Furthermore, they were asked to indicate on a five-point scale whether the change was desirable or undesirable. Round II responses were tabulated, noting median probability and interquartile ranges. In Round III participants were encouraged to modify their original assessments having examined the group medians. Round III results were again tabulated indicating group median and interquartile ranges. A consensus opinion was determined from those figures. The consensus opinion was also determined for desirable/undesirable ranking for each item indicating participants' attitudes towards expected change. It should be noted that for both Rounds II and III, respondents were encouraged to make comments under each item to clarify their responses. This qualitative element often provided explanations for quantitative decisions made by participants.

FINDINGS

The panel of experts forecast a rather optimistic scenario as telematics interfaces with nontraditional female college student through 2005. Telematics will likely have many positive impacts on the targeted population, in their opinions. Of the forty potential impacts named, 65% were considered desirable by the panel; only 22.5% were considered undesirable.

Responses fell into five major categories: college curriculum, sociological issues, psychological concerns, logistics, and administration concerns. Of the forty items, thirty-two scored at least a 60% median probability of occurrence by the year 2005. For maximum significance, however, only those items receiving an interquartile range of 20 or less (high consensus) have been listed. The thirteen items achieving at least a 60% probability of occurrence by 2005 and high consensus include: (in order of consensus)

1. Library resources will be more accessible electronically.
2. There will be greater access to computerized library catalogs at home.
3. There will be greater disparities between "information rich" and "information poor."
4. Use of technological alternatives to the delivery of educational programs could add much flexibility in scheduling so that it might accomodate the other roles nontraditional women have.
5. Educators will recognize the problem of equal access to technology for learning for all citizens.
6. Technology will provide access to a greater range and volume of information.
7. There will be greater need for a variety of support services: counseling, retention, recruitment, support groups, etc.
8. Many lessons will be placed on discs.
9. Computer and fiber optics will be used in networking.
10. Mastering key aspects of technology will make women feel more competitive in the job market.
11. There will be an increased emphasis on the need for learning how to learn rather than on the rote memory or passive listening to lectures, etc.
12. There will be more opportunity for individualizing the learning to fit the learner goals and cognitive styles.
13. Technology will promote the development of better external degree programs.

Discussion and Implications

In examining the thirteen items of highest agreement, some items should come as no surprise. Given rapid technological advancement and the information explosion, technology will no doubt provide access to a greater range and volume of information. Electronic accessibility to library resources as well as accessibility to computerized library catalogs at home are already in evidence in some locations. Logistics problems of scheduling (time and location) will be alleviated by the availability of technological solutions. Videotapes, discs, and multisensory interactive technologies will certainly facilitate flexibility for nontraditional students. Technology will also facilitate individualization of learning to accommodate specific learner goals and cognitive styles. If technology is indeed to become such an integral part of education, it also seems apparent that emphasis must be directed to learning how to learn rather than on rote memorization. Ability to access information will be a prerequisite to literacy in the ensuing years. Bearing this in mind, the experts fear that the gap between "information rich" and "information poor" will tend to widen. That issue must be addressed, along with the need for support systems for nontraditional students enrolled in higher education programs.

As indicated earlier, participants in this study were generally optimistic about the projected interactions between telematics and female nontraditional college students. Data from this study substantiated previous findings of Barber (1985) and Wallace (1987) indicating that technology was expected to change curriculum for the better. All three panels expressed concerns, however, about appropriate implementation of telematics in classes and resistance to change on the part of faculty, administration and some students themselves.

In reviewing the many issues raised as a result of this study, many strategies could be devised to amplify the positive impacts and ameliorate the potential negative impacts. Consider the following:

In the area of instruction-

- Strategies should be devised to encourage professors to integrate computers and telecommunications into their curricula in a meaningful fashion.
- When videotapes and discs are used in place of classroom instruction, methodology should be planned to include an element of personal interaction.

Curriculum Innovations-

- Colleges should develop cooperative efforts with businesses to keep in tune with changing skills and professional needs. Quality control should be a consideration when developing such programs.
- Colleges should strive to develop quality external degree programs that are credible in academe. Technology, wisely incorporated, should be a major tool to help accomplish this goal.

Addressing Psychological Issues-

- Faculty should be sensitized to the needs of the emerging nontraditional population through exposure to the principles of androgogy in classroom presentations.
- Continued efforts should be made to minimize possible technophobia by non-threatening exposure to technology at an early age.

Stereotypes should be defused.

- Potential isolation should be reduced by incorporating into each course a classroom component or form of personal interaction.

- Interactive media should be employed where classroom participation would otherwise not be possible.
- Efforts should be made to develop better support and advisory systems for nontraditional students, beginning in the admissions offices and departments of continuing education.

Addressing Sociological Issues-

- Programs should be developed to encorporate rural women into the educational process.
- Strategies should be developed to conduct an awareness campaign to minimize the gap between information rich/information poor. Such a program might include cooperative efforts of universities, businesses and government.
- Colleges should monitor and carefully coordinate off-campus educational sites to insure the quality of programs.
- Colleges should monitor appropriate student interactions with each other as well as with instructors.

Addressing Administrative Issues-

- A plan should be devised to "educate" administrators to changing demographics, in particular the emerging nontraditional student. Their needs and expectations are different.
- Administrators should be convinced that "nontraditional" students of today will soon be commonplace. As a result, commitments must be made philosophically and financially to lifelong learning, creative programs and innovative scheduling to best accommodate this particular student population.

It is hoped that educators will seriously consider the above suggestions and take steps to implement them. Sociological issues will require funding; psychological concerns will require careful planning; curricular issues will demand strategy and adaptation; all issues will require dealing with change. While acceptance of change will always be difficult for some, nothing is unsurmountable if commitments are made!

REFERENCES

Barber, B. (1985). Technological change and English teaching: A Delphi Study of American, British, and Canadian English Educators' views of the future of secondary English teaching. Doctoral dissertation, The University of Connecticut, 1985.

Bogdan, R.C. and Biklen, S.K. (1982). Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Bok, Derek (1985). Looking into education's high tech future. Harvard Magazine. (May-June), 29-37.

----Commission on Nontraditional Study (1973). Diversity by Design. Samuel B. Gould, Chairman. San Francisco: Jossey Bass Publishers.

----(1986). Commission on Schools for the 21st Century, Draft Report. Hartford: Connecticut State University (unpublished).

Dalkey, Norman C. (1972). An introduction to technological forecasting. New York: Science Publishers, Inc.

----Fall enrollment in higher education--final report. (1977). National Center for Educational Statistics.

Hall, James W., & Hassenger, Robert (1984). Nontraditional higher education programs, Encyclopedia of Educational Research (pp 1336-1341). New York: The Free Press, a Division of MacMillan Publishing Co., Inc.

Linstone, H. & Turoff M. (Eds.) (1975). The Delphi Method: Techniques and Applications. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

Mandaris, George P. (1969). The future of Delphi Technique. Technological Forecasting. Edinburgh Press, 162-169.

Toffler, A. (Ed.) (1974). Learning for Tomorrow: The role of the future in education. New York: Vintage Books.

Turner, Judith Axler (1987, July). Familiarity with new technology breeds changes in computer literacy courses. The Chronicle of Higher Education. 33, pp 9-12.

U.S. Government Printing Office (1981). U.S. Bureau of the Census, current population reports: school enrollment--social and economic characteristics of students. 1980 (p 20, no. 362). Washington, D.C.

Wallace, J. (1987). The impact of technology on the curriculum from 1986 to 2000. Doctoral disseration, The University of Connecticut, 1987.

Wishard, W. VanDusen (1987, September-October). Challenge for the twenty-first century. The Futurist, p 60. Bethesda, MD: World Future Society.

LEARNING FROM EXPERIENCE - EXAMINATION OF CONTRIBUTIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF TWO PROMISING THEORIES

Boyd E. Rossing, University of Wisconsin - Madison

Abstract The paper exmaines the contriubtions David Kolb's experiential learning theory and Chris Argyris and Donald Schon's theory of action perspective can make to explaining learning from experiences in community action groups. The two theories complement each other and together raise important questions for study in this area.

Introduction - Learning from Community Action Experience The focus of this paper is on learning from experience and especially on theory to explain such learning. While some (Jarvis, 1987; Kolb, 1984) have argued that all learning is experience based, the special emphasis here is on the way adults interact with and learn from experiences in daily living and particularly in community groups. This paper explores ways two theories of learning and education can contribute to explaining learning from community action experiences. Adult learning in community action settings is an especially appropriate arena for deriving and applying experiential learning theory. As Brookfield (1986) notes, "practically every community action initiative - from parents pressing for day care facilities or a safe street crossing... to tenant groups presenting schemes for rent reform... to campaigns for a nuclear freeze - exhibits a strong educative dimension..." (p. 159). Furthermore, the principle means by which citizens acquire skills and knowledge for community action is through experience, not through formal training (Fear, et al., 1985). Despite the importance of this adult learning arena, however, there has been very little investigation or theory building, especially U.S., that directly seeks to explain learning from community action experiences. Attention instead has focused on experiential learning in educative or work settings.

A few findings from a small study I have conducted (Rossing, 1987) may help to show some of the interesting questions that await research in this area. The purpose of the study was to explore (1) the content of beliefs about effective group functioning in community settings and (2) the processes by which people informally and naturally learn (eg. change beliefs) from experiences in such groups. Personal interviews constituted the primary research method.

Among the findings of interest were the following. Nearly a third of the participants in community groups did not describe a single learning instance in the course of their interview. Participants typically described some beliefs that had not changed over the course of considerable community experience. Other beliefs had changed. Beliefs pertaining to the importance of strong leadership, structured meetings and commitment of time tended to be pretty stable. Learning was more common with respect to beliefs regarding member participation in the group and tailoring assignments to member interests and abilities.

In most cases learning instances occurred when some obstacle or setback countered a persons's expectations and they subsequently revised their beliefs. In other cases their learning followed an unexpected success. Rarely did individuals report consciously and directly testing a belief. Most learning occurred sometime after one's initial entry into community activities. Few instances occurred in recent situations. Finally, it is interesting to note how participants commented on their learning processes. Almost without exception felt they had definitely learned from their community group experiences. Many, however, said their learning was not always a conscious process. They simply picked up ideas along the way without really knowing how they did so.

Learning from Experience - Theory in Adult Education What accounts for these results one might ask. With that question one is led to investigate relevant learning theory. Phyllis Cunningham has reviewed a set of approaches that focus on extracting meaning from experience. She identifies three groups of adult educators concerned with experiential learning (1) those seeking to substitute experiential learning for traditional learning within educational institutions (2) those wishing to assist adults to learn in collaborative and self-educational forms and (3) educators working with socially oppressed adults from a critical sociological perspective. She discusses two general schools of theory informing these efforts. Those with a cognitive emphasis approach experiential learning developmentally and in terms of preferred style. They emphasize individual adaptation to the environment. She cites the work of Bruner (1966) and Kolb (1981) here. The second school concentrates on analysis of sociological and political structures in society and seeks to foster empowerment learning of members of non-dominant cultures. They begin with concrete experiences of the learner within the subordinate culture and emphasize a process of reflection and action whereby empowerment may occur. Here she cites Friere (1974) and Reed (1981) and Mezirow (1978).

Cunningham draws a sharp contrast between the two approaches. Cognitive educators tend to locate the educational challenge in deficiencies in the learner's ability to engage in abstract symbolic learning based on their experiences. Empowerment educators on the other hand focus on structures of society that effectively prevent non-dominant members from learning meaningfully from their experience. An approach that provides some reconciliation between the individual development and social change orientations contrasted by Cunningham is the theory of Argyris and Schon (1974), later amplified by Argyris (1985). They have developed and applied a theory for fostering learning from experience in managerial and professional contexts.

This brief introduction to the broad topic of theories of learning from experience as they are applied in adult education reveals several problems. Differences in assumptions regarding the location of forces affecting learning divide the approaches. A second problem is that most of these theories begin with premises about how adults should learn from experience and focus on ways that educators can facilitate that process. Most give little attention to the prior question, how do adults naturally, in natural contexts, learn from experience. A third problem pertains to the contexts from which the theories are derived. Some are based on laboratory settings, others on educational settings, and others on specific adult roles, eg. professionals, managers, etc. It is important that the special attributes of such contexts not be overlooked in applying the theories in other settings.

The remainder of this paper will attempt to analyze and integrate two theories of learning from experience and to relate them to the context of adult learning in community action contexts. The two theories are first, David Kolb's experiential learning theory and second Chris Argyris and Donald Schon's theory of action perspective. These two approaches were selected for three reasons. First they provide some representation of the individual development versus the social change perspective. Second, each has been cited frequently as a useful model for understanding and facilitating learning from action or experience in adult settings.

Finally, the features of each are somewhat complementary and therefore amenable to some useful integration.

Experiential Learning Theory Kolb's theory of experiential learning is grounded in social and cognitive psychology. He draws on the work of Lewin and Dewey to describe the process of learning and reformulates the theory of Piaget and other developmental psychologists in explaining the structure of learning. He presents a model or blueprint of the ideal functioning of the "learning machine" rather than a description of actual functioning under varying circumstances of mood, culture and the like. In Kolb's exposition learning is defined as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (p. 38). It is in the interplay of expectations and experience that learning occurs or fails to occur. Experiences that violate expectations yield learning if the person reexamines and transforms his or her grasp of the situation. Learning does not occur if one holds fast to the original understanding rejecting the disconfirming experience or if the new experiences occur so continuously that one becomes paralyzed by doubt and uncertainty. In this view all learning is relearning. Kolb often illustrates the learning process by way of a cycle with four components or stages (Kolb, 1981). Unfortunately, this use of a linear cycle (following Lewin) tends to misrepresent his more fully developed views of the interactions of the four components.

According to Kolb knowledge is created (eg. learning occurs) through a combination of grasping experience and then transforming it. The simple perception or grasp of experience is not sufficient for learning, something must be done with the experience. There are two different and opposed processes for grasping experience - either through comprehension or apprehension. Comprehension refers to conceptual interpretation and symbolic representation whereas apprehension refers to the continuous sensation of colors, textures, sounds and other felt qualities of immediate experience. These two processes are co-equal, representing two modes of knowing and supported most recently by research on the hemispheres of the brain.

There are also two basic and independent processes by which grasped experience is transformed, intention and extension. Intention refers to internal reflection on what one apprehends or comprehends and extension refers to active manipulation of the external world as it is comprehended or apprehended. Cultures vary in the emphasis given to action and reflection. For example Western technological societies emphasize action and Eastern cultures have tended to emphasize reflection. This structural model is capable of producing a rich variety of learning processes. The learning process can be governed at any moment by one or all of these processes acting simultaneously.

Combinations of the grasping and transforming modes yield four forms of knowledge. When experience is grasped by apprehension, it yields divergent knowledge when transformed by reflection and accommodative knowledge when transformed by action. On the other hand when experience is grasped by comprehension it yields assimilative knowledge when transformed by reflection and convergent knowledge when transformed by action.

Kolb sees learning as an adaptation process. Individuals adapt to their social and physical environment. The learning experience is viewed as a transactional process in which the social and physical environment and one's internal characteristics shape behavior and behavior in turn shapes environment and personal characteristics. Kolb recognizes that individual development may be in conflict with demands and structures of society. For example societal pressures toward specialization stand in opposition to development and integration of diverse learning styles and can even retard overall development of the culture. To counter some of these tendencies Kolb's learning/development model is presented as a "normative adaptive ideal".

Kolb argues that relatively stable and individualized styles emphasizing some of the learning modes over others arise from consistent patterns of transaction of individuals with their environments. These styles arise from genetic qualities in interaction with environmental circumstances and human choices. At a basic level some individuals prefer to learn divergently, others in an assimilative manner and so forth. The situation is more complex than that however, because individuals also combine these strategies in various ways producing higher levels of learning. The combination of all four learning forms produces the highest level of learning and increases skills in the use of each learning mode. Most people, however, do not operate at the highest level. They tend to rely on one learning mode with occasional use of others. Ideally, over the course of a lifetime one's learning processes exhibit higher levels of integration.

The role of the educator applying Kolb's learning theory is to identify and manage those aspects of the educative environment that influence the learning process. The emphasis is on attending to individual learning styles and fostering development of learning sophistication. To achieve a good teaching/learning style match the educator is encouraged to individualize the learning process.

Kolb suggests that educators consider three types of objectives, those related to content, to learner's learning styles and to growth and creativity. The subject may call for one learning mode, the learner's style for a second and growth of the learner (eg. diversification of the styles), a third. These are not easy issues for educators. While Kolb espouses an emphasis on integration, eg. growth and development over the long run, he has little advice for the educator in any specific situation.

The Theory of Action Perspective Argyris and Schon's theory begins with a conception of people as designers of action. Individuals make sense of their environment, design actions to achieve intended outcomes and monitor the effectiveness of their action and the suitability of their constructions of the environment. Rather than design action from scratch in each situation they develop a set of concepts and strategies and draw from this repertoire in unique situations. These design programs are called theories of action. Theories of action are nested at different levels of abstraction. Argyris concentrates on the level of abstraction at which persons in everyday life reflect on their actions.

Argyris distinguishes between two theories of action. Espoused theories are strategies a person claims to follow. Theories-in-use are those that can be inferred from one's actions. The two sets of theory may be consistent or inconsistent and the person may or may not be aware of the consistency.

Theories in use contain three basic elements. Governing variables are values the actor seeks to satisfy. Typically several governing variables apply to any action and the person must trade off achieving satisfactory ranges for them. Action strategies are sequences of behavior the agent uses to satisfy governing variables. Finally, consequences are the outcomes created by action strategies.

It is through monitoring the consequences of action strategies that learning takes place in Argyris' theory. Two forms of learning are identified. Single loop learning occurs when an action has undesirable consequences and the actor selects another strategy to satisfy the same governing variables. However, double loop learning occurs if the person decides to change their governing variables and then to select a new course of action. Double loop issues are signaled by situations that threaten individuals or where problems persist despite efforts to solve them. Argyris focuses on fostering double loop learning.

Argyris and Schon have developed models that describe features of theories-in-use. They contend that such models characterize individual theories in use and also the behavioral world of the organization or culture in which individuals live. Behavioral worlds are created by individual actions but also serve to socialize individuals into particular theories-in-use. They present two contrasting models, the first of which, Model I, tends to inhibit double-loop learning and the second, Model II, enhances production of valid information and double loop learning. The principle difference between the two models is that public questioning of underlying norms (eg. governing variables) is discouraged in Model I and encouraged in Model II. As a result, Model I theories in use create conditions of undiscussability, self-fulfilling prophecy, self-sealing beliefs, and escalating errors. At the same time individuals and organizations remain unaware of their responsibility for these conditions. Model II has the opposite effects. This model fosters both single and double loop learning. Based on experiences with dozens of client groups Argyris and Schon contend that Model I typifies theories in use of individuals, groups and organizations. Most individuals, however, espouse theories inconsistent with Model I and often closer to Model II.

The role of the educator in Argyris' theory is to provide interventions that help persons reflect on the world they create by their theories-in-use and to learn to change it in ways more congruent with the values they espouse. They propose that educators adopt the normative perspective contained in Model II and invite learners to freely adopt and incorporate it. The educator performs this mission by guiding learners through unfreezing, and then new learning. In the unfreezing process learners are aided in becoming aware of and reflecting on their existing theories in use and particularly discrepancies between espoused and in-use theories. They also develop greater skills of reflection. The second stage occurs as learners acquire new theories in use and the competence to manage the learning process on their own.

Two Theories Compared and Contrasted At this point the theories of Kolb and of Argyris and Schon can be briefly compared and contrasted. Each includes action and reflection as central elements in learning. Kolb holds out the possibility that learning may occur through reflection or action alone or in combination. Argyris allows the same in suggesting that espoused theories and theories in use may develop and change independently of each other. Both contend that learning is better when the two processes are integrated. Kolb gives much more attention to individualized styles that characterize different modes of learning. A second point of difference is really a matter of focus. Kolb's model encompasses all forms of learning from concrete sensation to abstract conceptualizations of everyday action strategies. Argyris and Schon focus on action strategies.

Argyris and Kolb also differ in the emphasis they give to values in the learning process. Argyris includes governing variables in his theory of action concept and argues that learning occurs as individuals monitor the extent to which their actions achieve their values. Furthermore he claims that some values inhibit learning while others foster it. He even presents contrasting values and takes an advocacy position. Kolb on the other hand hews to a more neutral position. He acknowledges that people learn through experiences discrepant from their expectations but leaves the individual value question untouched. Jarvis's (1987) recent modification of Kolb's model helps in this regard by adding an evaluation component.

Lastly, both writers acknowledge the role of the larger social environment in shaping individual learning. Kolb, concerned that social structures do not allow sufficient diversity for individual development calls on educators to intervene in ways that facilitate integrative development. He says little about individuals attempting to change social structures. Argyris contends that the social worlds of modern organizations socialize individuals to adopt Model I theories-in-use that severely limit learning. He takes a stronger normative position than Kolb, arguing that his theory seeks "to stimulate critical self-reflection among human agents so that they may more freely choose whether and how to transform their world" (p. 71).

Applications to Community Action Learning We may now be in a position to consider the contributions each of these theories can make to explaining informal learning from experience in community groups. Argyris's perspective may help to explain the low incidence of conscious reflective learning while Kolb's is more useful in explaining the less conscious way that participants "absorb" their beliefs. Argyris model invites an examination of the incidence of single versus double loop learning and conditions affecting each. Kolb's emphasis on individual styles might be a useful way of exploring individual differences in what is learned from community experience.

With respect to the context of community learning it would be very interesting, following Argyris, to explore the models that characterize environmental and individual theories-in-use. Finally, both theories imply that individuals, on their own, rarely oppose or seek to change larger social structures. Each assigns special importance to an intervening educator. Investigation of the forms of leadership or intervention that characterize social action groups might therefore be especially revealing.

Selected References (Complete list available on request)

Argyris, C. et al. Action Science. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1985.

Argyris, C. and Schon, D.. Theory in Practice - Increasing Professional Effectiveness. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1974.

Cunningham, Phyllis. "Helping Students Extract Meaning from Experience" in Robert Smith (Ed.) New Directions for Continuing Education 19, September 1983, pp. 57-69.

Kolb, D. Experiential Learning. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1984.

Kolb, D.A. "Learning Styles and Disciplinary Differences." In A.W. Chickering and Associates, The Modern American College: Responding to the New Realities of Diverse Students and a Changing Society". San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1981.

Rossing, B. "Informal Learning from Community Action Experience - A Qualitative Exploration". In progress. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1988.

PARADIGMS & IDEOLOGY IN PARTICIPATION RESEARCH –
A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Kjell Rubenson, University of British Columbia/
University of Linköping

ABSTRACT

Research paradigms on participation in adult education in North America and the Scandinavian countries were compared. An explanatory framework based on academic environment and the structure and function of adult education was discussed. The North American research has had a stronger emphasis on intradisciplinary development while Scandinavian research mainly has been guided by social urgency. The different contexts are reflected in the direction of theory development in North America and Scandinavia.

BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE

It is only recently that social scientists have come to recognize that knowledge, in the broadest sense of the word, is context-dependent, constrained by and created out of social factors. Scholars working within the sociology of knowledge have paid increased attention to the social process in which research is done: how do the social and cultural locations of research effect knowledge production? According to the viewpoint held in the sociology of knowledge, assumptions, cultural locations and political interests are intricately tied to the choice of research problems as well as to conceptual, procedural and design questions (Popkewitz, 1984).

As literature in the sociology of science emphasizes, communal aspects of research are central to an understanding of the mode of inquiry used. Within any scientific community a shared way of 'seeing' the world and a commitment to particular ways of reasoning, conducting and evaluating research develop. According to Kuhn (1970) scientific communities have particular constellations of questions, methods and procedures that form disciplinary matrixes or paradigms. Kuhn maintains that the purpose of, for example, doctoral studies is to socialize the neophyte scholar into ways of thinking, seeing and feeling as a researcher within a specific field.

The purpose of this study is to give focus to the issues raised above through a comparative analysis of research paradigms on participation in adult education in North America and the Scandinavian Countries, with an emphasis on Sweden. More precisely, according to Törnebohm's concept of territory any scientific description can, on an epistemological level, be described in terms of its territory (Törnebohm, 1979). He further states that knowledge produced by research creates an authorized map of the research territory. Törnebohm's work helps us to reframe our questions as follows: to what extent are the North America and Scandinavian maps similar and/or different, and if different how can these differences be explained?

EXPLANATORY FRAMEWORK

This comparison of research on participation in adult education in North America and Scandinavia has as its point of departure a contextual analysis of: a) the academic environment, including the development of adult education as a field of study; and b) the structure and function of adult education in the two regions.

Academic environment

While there is a long history of a discussion in North America about whether adult education constitutes a discipline, this has not been the case in Scandinavia where adult education research is a more recent phenomenon. This difference in emphasis on the disciplinary character of adult education can be partly explained by the structures and traditions of the countries' respective university systems.

There exists a vast literature on the process of specialization whereby new disciplines and/or fields of studies emerge. Elzinga (1987, p. 19) suggests three main types of innovation through which a new field gets established:

1. a new discipline develops by virtue of research being focussed on a new area (territory) of reality;
2. a new discipline emerges when an earler field of research and its territory is seen in a new light (perspective shift);
3. a new discipline emerges when new types of knowledge and skills need to be developed.

In the United States, where universities have had a long tradition of training professionals, graduate programmes in adult education began in the 1930s. The first was established at Teacher's College Columbia in 1930 with the first doctorate awarded in 1935. The major growth in the field, however, came in the late 1950s and early 1960s, primarily motivated by the increased need for the training of adult education professionals.

The Scandinavian pattern is quite different. This can be explained by two things. Firstly, Scandinavian universities have traditionally been less responsive to social pressure and have therefore paid less attention to training of professionals, than have their United States counterparts. Secondly, the providers of adult education, often connected to popular social movements, have been suspicious of the universities and the elitist ethos that they portray. However, the political climate in Scandinavia changed in the late 1960s and as a consequence research on the adult education phenomenon has burgeoned. One factor underlying this growth was that adult education became a major public policy issue. While external societal forces led to the growth of adult education in both Scandinavia and North America, Scandinavia differs in that it was the need for knowledge connected to broad social policies, rather than professionalization, that led to an explosion in the amount of adult education research being supported.

In order to understand why adult education is not developing as a specialized field of study in Scandinavia, we have to understand the differences in the degree of specialization in education. While in Sweden education exists within the faculty of social sciences as a discipline separated from teacher training programmes, this is not the case in North America. By contrast, in North America we often see a faculty of education divided into departments either on the basis of discipline or on the basis of the area of practice. Thus defining adult education as a distinct area in North America is congruent with the way faculties of education are structured; in addition the professional emphasis is clearly embedded in the institutional structure of the university.

A third factor which must be taken into account is the funding for adult education research. A major difference is the large allocation to education from various policy fields: in Sweden, for example, a large amount of educational research including adult education is financed through the National Board of Education's sectoral R & D fund. It is important to point out that while the impetus for a research project is a policy issue the design and theoretical standard of the project is reviewed by peers according to traditional social science criteria. No equivalent funding mechanism exists in North America.

Structure and function of adult education

It is very difficult to get comparable participation figures across countries. However, there are data on organized adult education from Canada, Norway and Sweden that are similar enough to allow for comparison. In the first two countries the total participation rate is around 19 percent, in Sweden 42 percent. Figures for the U.S. are uncertain as various studies, using different definitions, have arrived at anything ranging from around 12 to 50 percent (Courtney, 1984). The North American figures most comparable to those in Scandinavia come from the National Centre for Education Statistics which in 1981 estimated a participation rate of 12 percent. Allowing for the study not fully taking into account employer sponsored courses and the numbers of full-time students in adult education, the "true" figures for participation may be closer to the Canadian-Norwegian figures, than the 12 percent reported by NCES.

Regardless of participation figures there are two marked differences in the respective structures of adult education. The first is that the formal educational system plays a much larger role in North America than in Scandinavia, while the reverse is true for adult education organized by social movements. Second, in contrast to Scandinavia's heavy government funding and response to social demands, the North American system is to a large extent market driven, and geared to respond to individual demands. The situation in Sweden reflects the fact that adult education in the 1970s became an integrated part of the Scandinavian countries' economic and welfare policy. During this period the priority aim of adult education was seen as the attempt to bring about equality, where equality was defined as an equalization in the posession of various resources (political, economic, cultural and social) among the population.

PARTICIPATION RESEARCH

North America

In North America, the voluntary nature of, and market approach to, adult education has made participation a major research topic. In the 1920s we already find systematic studies conducted to find out who participated in adult education and why. Looking at more recent times, 13 percent of all articles published in Adult Education Quarterly during the period 1970-1987 addressed the issue of participation (motives for participation, characteristics of participants, and need identification). A similar figure is reported by Long (1983) for research presented at the Adult Education Research Conference, 1971-1980.

Research on participation can be divided into two main categories: descriptive research, and research designed to generate theory (including instrument development). Looking historically, one can detect two changes of interest in participation studies. First, studies are increasingly theoretically sophisticated. Second, perspectives on participation seem to have changed.

Descriptive research has been of two kinds: clientele analysis describing the people participating in a certain programme; and regional and, to a lessor extent, national surveys comparing characteristics of participants to those of non-participants. The earlier comparisons between participants and non-participants, although criticized for lack of theory and sophistication, provide a rather rich and telling picture of the social, cultural and ecomonic differences between participants and non-participants. The motive for conducting these studies varied.

As Courtney's historical review (1984) reveals, early studies were instigated not only by "selfish" institutional motives but also by social concerns. The issue of participation in adult education was related to participation in society in general. Further, although this was not developed to any great extent, there existed an embryo sociological perspective linking participation to social class. This line of research, which had totally dominated the scene in the early years, started to decline in the middle 1960s, although still appearing now and then.

A theoretical concern superceded preoccupation with traditional participation surveys. Most important was a fundamental shift toward an emphasis on motivation. In light of the rather rich descriptive material that already existed, this was a natural development.

Looking at articles by North American scholars in Adult Education Quarterly from 1970 to 1987, there are three times as many articles addressing motivation as there are studies that more directly address differences between participants and non-participants. In fact, while there are a few Scandinavian articles in this journal which deal with participation-non-participation, there is no major empirical North American study comparing participants and non-particpants. Judging from this we can suggest that the social concern of earlier studies has been replaced by a concern for theory development. In this process the non-particpant seem to have disappeared. Further adult education as a social phenomenon gets replaced by motivation, a psychological phenomenon.

This particular development in approaches to research, with its aim of finding generalizable results based on empirical study, is embedded in and relies on psychological theories in a logical-positivistic paradigm, an approach that accords well with the dominant paradigm of educational research in North America at large.

Inspired by Tough's research (Tough, 1971) another important change that occured in the 1970s was a shift in research from a narrow preoccupation with participation in education to an interest in participation in learning including both organized education and self-education.

PARTICIPATION RESEARCH

Scandinavia

Although we have been talking about Scandinavia as a generic whole, there are major variations between the countries in the region that are not addressed here. Compared to the U.S., the interest in participation research is a very recent phenomenon in Scandinavia. This is not surprising given that the Scandinavian countries' interest in recruitment to adult education is equally new. During the radical reforms in primary, secondary and higher education during the 50s and 60s, little or no attention was paid to recruitment to adult education. This late interest can be contrasted with the fact that during the whole of this century adult education has played a significant role in the Scandinavian countries. It was only when, in the late 1960s, adult education came to be used directly as an instrument for achieving overall social and economic policies that researchers got interested in this area of education. The changed status of adult education was followed by a sharp rise in resources for R & D. In Norway a special institute for R & D in the field of adult education was established in 1976. The development of adult education's share of the Swedish National Board of Education's (NBE) R & D grants increased from 8 percent 1972 to 20 percent 1978/79. Corresponding trends can be detected in Denmark.

Judging from the references cited in a bibliography of adult education in the Scandinavian countries (Mørch-Jacobson, 1983) it seems that research in the respective countries have followed a similar development in research patterns:

1. studies aimed at describing participants in a certain type of adult education;
2. studies aimed at comparing participants and non-participants with respect to various characteristics;
3. studies concentrating on the target group, i.e., the underprivileged.

Descriptions of those who participate lead to questions on how they differ from those who do, such comparative studies usually concentrate on the differences between various sub-groups. Departing from the overall descriptive approach, focus then shifted to the examination of the interrelation of social and psychological factors among the target group.

Another characteristic of the research is its preoccupation with analyzing the effects of various adult education reforms aimed at recruiting disadvantaged groups. Thus, an important research emphasis has been on "ideals and realities" in adult education. These studies analyze social forces underlying the reforms, the ideology of reforms, reform strategies, and they go on to address the effects of various reforms in relation to goals, strategies and allocated resources. The development of this line of research, especially in Sweden, has benefited enormously from the availability of two kinds of data: a) national statistics on adult education participation; and national social indicators and b) the availability of large longtitudinal data banks. Scandinavian researchers have, with rare exceptions, not addressed participation in learning projects as defined by Tough and are generally sceptical to the redefinition that has occured in the field.

One way of classifying research is to look at degree of social urgency and intradisciplinary importance.

Official documents from Parliament, Government Commissions and local authorities show that not only was adult education integrated into the general educational policy of the Scandinavian countries but it also constituted one of the areas of highest priority. Thus it can be concluded that the research conducted on participation has been carried out under the press of a high degree of social concern.

The degree of intradisciplinary importance depends among other things on whether the research opens up new scientific territory, poses new questions concerning old problems, confirms previously tentative findings, and creates or refines new methods. Research of little intradisciplinary importance is not necessarily bad research. Presentations of facts and conclusions can be correct, of good quality, and also important in relation to the degree of social urgency. I have argued elsewhere (Rubenson, 1979) that Scandinavian research into adult education participation is marked by the lack of analytical approaches. Studies mainly have been concerned with describing who takes part in adult education, particularly with regard to different statistical background factors such as age, education and social status. More often than not, researchers have been content to describe their own findings without relating them to the findings which have emerged from comparable investigations.

However, since the late 1970s it has been possible to notice in the different Scandinavian countries the beginnings of efforts not only to describe but also to explain the phenomenon of participation. This effort has been largely concerned with integrating research on participation in adult education with social science research in general, by proceeding from theories of more general character. In view of the fact that much interest has centered around "ideals and realities" and the intersection between state, adult education provision and individual behaviour, it is understandable that sociology and social theory have had a relatively strong influence on recent theoretical work. This is not to deny that social psychology also has played an important role in this research; indeed in that it acknowledges the social character of individual thought it plays its part in what Berger and Luckmann call, "the social construction of reality."

DISCUSSION

There are marked differences in the approach to participation research, as we note in the above discussion. These differences have to be understood in the larger context of the impact social and cultural traditions have on research (Popkewitz, 1984). The United States, with its decentralized political and economic systems places a research emphasis on social mobility for the individual; Scandinavia, with its greater degree of State involvement and emphasis on collective change and fosters a research focus on the interaction between social structure and individual behaviour.

In addition, the differences in the academic environment also play a major role in determining research traditions. The growing concern about intradisciplinary research in North America, with its concommitant skepticism about borrowing from other disciplines is linked to the institutional fact of adult education's development as a separate discipline. The Scandinavian countries efforts to "discipline" adult education research has, in contrast, been viewed as unrealistic and undesireable. Scandinavia has been guided in its cartography of adult education by a social urgency complemented by special funding for theoretically oriented research.

A particular strength of Scandinavian research is that the social and particularly, political concern with adult education has resulted in large research projects providing rich data not only on individual behaviour but also on its interrelation to social contexts. Its weakness has been its negligence toward the creation of adult education as a distinct field of study. The situation in North America is the reverse: it has concentrated in building a cummulative body of knowledge but with a focus on the individual, a fact not surprising given its limited policy emphasis and lack of a comparable data base to that of Scandinavia.

REFERENCES

Courtney, S. (1984). Visible learning: adult education and the questions of participation. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois University, Dekalb.

Elzinga, A. (1987). "Internal and external regulatives in research and higher educational systems." In Premfors, R. (ed.), Disciplinary perspectives on higher education and research. Stockholm: Stockholm University, Department of Political Science Report 37.

Kuhn, T.S. (1970). The structure of scientific revolutions. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Mørch-Jacobsen, K. (1983). Nye veje i voksen undevisning og folkeoplysning. Kobenhavn: Nordisk Ministerrad.

Popkewitz, T.S. (1984). Paradigm & Ideology in educational research. London: The Falcon Press.

Rubenson, K. (1979). Recruitment to adult education in the Nordic countries. Stockholm: SIE Research Bulletin 3/79.

SOU 1980:2 Skolforskning och skolutveckling.

Törnebohm, H. (1974). Scientific Knowledge Formation. Göteborg: Department of Theory Science, University of Göteborg.

Tough, A. (1971). The adult's learning projects. Ontario: OISE Press.

THE BEST AND WORST CLASSROOM LEARNING EXPERIENCES OF ADULT LEARNERS

Barry G. Sheckley, Ph.D.
University of Connecticut

ABSTRACT: This study describes significant differences which exist between adults' best and worst learning experiences in formal classrooms. It also describes how the differences vary as a function of gender and learning style.

With increasing numbers of adult learners populating formal programs, more insight on teaching adults is needed. Extensive studies of the teaching--learning process in elementary-secondary schools (e.g., Wittrock, 1986), and well documented empirical investigations on teaching traditional age collegiate learners (e.g., Duncan and Barnes, 1986) consistently identify common attributes shared by excellent teachers. Armistead, Fowler, Barksdale and Reif (1987) state that outstanding instructors state clear objectives, present material systematically, summarize major premises, stimulate interest, have an expert's grasp of course content and a lover's passion for its beauty and nuances. The generalizability of these findings to instructors of adult learners needs to be established, however.

The exclusive strategies for teaching adult learners posited by Lindeman (1926) and Knowles (1978) have been expanded by recent authors. Chickering (1981) and Knefelkamp (1986) insightfully established adult learning as a developmental process. Kolb (1984) enriched earlier models with a comprehensive experiential learning framework and provided new perspectives on individual learning styles. Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986) contributed a new set of perspectives with their investigations of women's relational and collaborative ways of knowing. Additional considerations for teaching adult learners are presented by many other authors (e.g., Brookfield, 1986; Cross, 1981; and Draves, 1984). However, like the research on K-12 processes, these frameworks need to be tested against the perceptions of adult learners.

Research questions. Three research questions were investigated: (a) What factors differentiate adults' best and worst classroom learning experiences? (b) Do these factors vary by learning style? (c) Do these factors vary by gender?

Sample. The sample included 129 adults from colleges, universities, corporate education programs, and police training academies in New England. The average respondent was 35 years old, had almost 4 years of education past high school, had completed 44 credits since the age of 25, and was more likely to be a women (n = 72) than a man (n = 57). In terms of learning styles, more of the participants were classified as assimilators (n = 36) than as divergers (n = 33), convergers (n = 27) or accommodators (n = 25).

Instruments. Using principles of excellent teaching and adult learning identified in the literature, a two-part, mirror-image questionnaire was developed. The questionnaire had 5 identical 10-15 item sections for describing best and worst experiences in a formal classroom. The five sections identified characteristics of the student at the time of the experience, the teacher's style and techniques, the teacher's emphasis on cognitive and affective topics, characteristics of the learning environment, descriptions of learning activities, and aspects of course examinations. After review by a panel of nationally recognized adult learning researchers and several pilot tests, the questionnaire was revised to include 148 Likert scale items (74 relating to the worst experience and an identical 74 relating to the best experience.) The sections had moderate internal consistency with reliability scores ranging from .51 to .78.

Data collection and analysis. The questionnaire was distributed to 15 institutions participating in the New England Adult Research Network. Respondents described their best and worst experiences in a formal classroom since the age of 25 years. Each respondent also completed the Learning Style Inventory (Kolb, 1985). Data were analyzed using stepwise discriminant regression procedures.

Results. Table 1 identifies items which significantly differentiated the best and the worst learning experience for adults in this study. The table lists the significant descriptors, the incremental variance (R^2 statistic), and the means on the 6 point Likert scale (6 = strongly agree, to 1 = strongly disagree) for the best and worst experience.

In contrast to the worst experiences, teachers in the best situations increased appreciation for the subject matter, were sensitive to the response of the class, had command of the subject matter, and were not lacking personal fulfillment. In the best courses, teachers made the course exciting, summarized major points, and quickly grasped what students were saying or asking. The best experiences consisted of learning activities which were interesting, related class topics to students' lives and experiences, welcomed class discussion, encouraged independent action and were part of real life situations.

The learning environment also had important attributes which differentiated the best and worst classroom experiences. Most importantly, the classroom environment encouraged student interactions in a climate which accepted errors as a natural part of the learning process. These adults also noted that the best environments did not devalue students on the basis of gender and were free of distractions and interruptions. According to the adults in this sample, examinations in the highly rated courses reflected their knowledge in the course, kept students well informed of their academic progress, and had instructional value. Finally, the results indicate that adults in this sample received a higher grade in their best classroom experience. They also had a higher level of personal resources (e.g., time, energy, etc.) to devote to their best learning experience.

Tables 2 and 3 depict the heterogeneous nature of adult learners. They demonstrate that responses to learning situations vary by learning style and gender. For example, even though most adults like activities which stimulate independent thought, divergers agree more strongly than accommodators that such activities characterize the best situation. Similarly, accommodators represent a minority opinion about teacher emphases on discussing current developments. Likewise assimilators are not in strong agreement that errors should be accepted as part of the learning process in the best environment. Table 3 depicts gender differences in learning situations as women, more than men, find their best learning situations including teachers who are interested in students as individuals, relate to students as partners in learning, promote student interactions, and do not devalue students on the basis of gender.

Table 1. Stepwise regression analysis of responses discriminating between best and worst classroom learning experiences of adults at $p < .05$ level.

Item	Incremental R^2	*Mean Best	*Mean Worst
TEACHER COGNITIVE/AFFECTIVE EMPHASES			
Increased appreciation for subject matter	.68	5.6	2.4
Sensitive to response of class	.83	5.2	2.4
Had command of subject matter	.88	5.8	4.5
Seemed to lack personal fulfillment	.91	1.4	3.2
TEACHER STYLE/TECHNIQUE CHARACTERISTICS			
Made course exciting	.76	5.5	1.9
Summarized major points	.84	5.3	3.3
Quickly grasped what students were saying or asking	.87	5.3	2.6
Presented material in organized manner	.89	5.4	3.1
LEARNING ACTIVITIES			
Were interesting	.58	5.4	2.7
Related class topics to students' lives & experiences	.71	4.9	2.6
Welcomed class discussion	.75	5.2	3.4
Encouraged independent action	.77	5.0	3.4
Were part of real life situations	.79	4.9	2.8
LEARNING ENVIRONMENT			
Accepted errors as natural part of learning process	.33	4.8	2.9
Promoted student interactions	.47	4.8	3.0
Subtlely devalued students on the basis of gender.	.57	1.4	2.5
Distractions & interruptions were not present	.62	1.9	2.7
Was physically comfortable	.66	4.8	3.6
Self-evaluation by students was encouraged	.68	4.1	2.4
Instructional aids were easy to see and hear	.70	4.6	2.7
EXAMINATIONS			
Kept students well informed of academic progress	.33	4.9	3.0
Grade reflected my knowledge in course	.47	5.2	3.0
Had instructional value	.51	5.1	3.1
STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS			
Grade received	.08	3.5	2.6
Level of personal resources available for learning.	.11	4.5	4.0

* 6 = strongly agree; 5 = agree; 4 = agree slightly; 3 = disagree slightly; 2 = disagree; 1 = strongly disagree

Table 2. Stepwise regression analysis of responses discriminating among characteristics of classroom learning experiences by learning style at $p < .05$ level.

Item	Incremental R^2	*Responses by Style ˆ1	2	3	4
LEARNING STYLE DIFFERENCES AMONG BEST EXPERIENCES					
TEACHER EMPHASES					
Discussed current developments as appropriate	.10	5.5^a	5.4^a	5.5^a	4.4^b
TEACHER STYLE					
Stated course objectives in syllabus	.08	5.6^a	4.9^b	5.3	5.5^a
Made course exciting	.14	5.6^a	5.3	5.6	5.2^b
LEARNING ACTIVITIES					
Stimulated independent thinking	.12	5.7^a	5.2^b	5.5	5.0^b
Related class topics to students' lives and experiences	.20	4.9	5.3^a	4.3^b	4.9
LEARNING ENVIRONMENT					
Accepted errors as natural part of learning process	.09	5.3^a	4.2^b	5.0^a	5.0^a
Competition among students was encouraged	.17	3.4^a	2.2^b	3.0	3.0
Was physically comfortable	.26	4.9^a	5.0^a	4.7	4.4^b
EXAMINATIONS					
Had instructional value	.09	5.5^a	4.7^b	5.4^a	4.6^b
LEARNING STYLE DIFFERENCES AMONG WORST EXPERIENCES					
TEACHER EMPHASES					
Displayed enjoyment of teaching	.07	2.7^b	3.0	3.6^a	3.8^a
Was cynical about the course	.14	2.5	3.1	2.3	2.8
TEACHER STYLE					
Respected student as person	.06	2.2^b	2.9	3.5^a	3.3^a
LEARNING ACTIVITIES					
Stimulated independent action	.08	2.6^b	2.7	2.3^b	3.5^a
EXAMINATIONS					
Kept students well informed of their academic progress	.07	2.3^b	3.2^a	3.3^a	3.4^a
Were returned in a timely fashion	.13	3.8	3.4^b	4.3^a	3.3^b

---

* 6 = strongly agree; 5 = agree; 4 = agree slightly; 3 = disagree slightly; 2 = disagree; 1 = strongly disagree

ˆ 1 = Diverger; 2 = Assimilator; 3 = Converger; 4 = Accommodator

"A" indicates mean(s) is significantly larger than mean(s) marked "B"

Table 3. Stepwise regression analysis of responses discriminating among characteristics of classroom learning experiences by gender at $p < .05$ level.

Item	Incremental R^2	* Gender F	M
GENDER DIFFERENCES AMONG BEST EXPERIENCES			
TEACHER EMPHASES			
Displayed self-confidence	.09	5.6	5.3
TEACHER STYLE			
Interested in students as individuals	.08	5.2	4.5
Utilized student skills and experiences in teaching designs	.15	4.5	4.4
Related to students as partners in learning	.23	5.2	4.4
LEARNING ACTIVITIES			
Were interesting	.06	5.5	5.3
LEARNING ENVIRONMENT			
Distractions and interruptions were present	.06	1.7	2.2
Promoted student interactions	.11	5.0	4.5
Accepted errors as natural part of learning process	.15	5.1	4.6
EXAMINATIONS			
Had instructional value	.06	5.4	4.7
Were graded fairly	.09	5.2	5.0
STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS			
Resources available to commit to learning effort	.06	4.6	4.1
GENDER DIFFERENCES AMONG WORST EXPERIENCES			
TEACHER EMPHASES			
Emphasized practice over theory	.06	2.4	3.1
LEARNING ENVIRONMENT			
Distractions and interruptions were present	.04	2.4	3.0
Students weaknesses and shortcomings were emphasized	.08	3.0	2.4
Instructional aids were easy to see	.12	3.1	2.5
Subtlely devalued students on basis of gender	.15	2.8	2.2

* 6 = strongly agree; 5 = agree; 4 = agree slightly; 3 = disagree slightly; 2 = disagree; 1 = strongly disagree

Discussion. The results of this study indicate that many factors associated with effective instruction for younger learners also apply to adult learners. Like their younger cohorts, these adults appreciated instructors who displayed enthusiasm, stimulated interest, and provided clear, well-prepared, well-organized courses. Since these adults also indicated instructional preferences which were not usually identified by traditional age learners, (e.g., encourage independent action) teachers of adults need to supplement traditional approaches to excellent teaching by promoting student interactions, welcoming class discussion, linking class topics to students' experiences and relating to students as partners in learning.

The results also suggest that there is not a single, best-way to teach adult learners. Even common adult teaching axioms like "relate instruction to student's lives," or "stimulate independent thinking" register with significant levels of disagreement among adult learners with differing learning styles.

The results support using varied approaches for teaching adult learners in classrooms. The experiential learning cycle (Kolb, 1984) provides an excellent guide for designing classroom presentations. The specific events, reflective discussions, abstract ideas, and experimentation prompted by the model promote an engaging adult learning climate.

REFERENCES

Armistead, Fowler, Barksdale and Reif (1987). The quest for excellence in university teaching. The Journal of Higher Education, 58(1) , 66-84.

Belenky,M., Clinchy, B., Goldberger, N., Tarule, J. (1986) Women's ways of knowing. New York: Basic Books.

Brookfield, S. (1986). Facilitating adult learning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Chickering, A. (1981). The modern American college. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cross, K. P. (1981). Adults as learners. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Draves, W. (1984). How to teach adults. Manhattan, Kansas: The Learning Resources Network.

Duncan, M. with Barnes, J. (1986). Research on teaching in higher education in Wittrock, M. ed. Handbook of research on teaching. 3rd ed. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.

Kolb, D. (1984). Experiential learning. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Kolb, D. (1985) Learning Style Inventory. Boston: McBer and Company.

Knefelkamp, L. (1986). Developmental instruction and adult learning. Address at CAEL National Institute, Chicago, Ill., June.

Lindeman E. (1926), The meaning of adult education. New York: New Republic.

Wittrock, M. (1986). Handbook of research on teaching. 3rd ed. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.

An Agenda for Adult Education Research in China:
A Crosscultural Comparison

Edwin L. Simpson
Northern Illinois University

Abstract: This study examined sources of adult education research agenda development in China and compared these findings with North American research activity. Opinions of 85 Chinese adult educators and literature that addressed research priorities and activity in China as well as the U.S. and Canada were used as resources.

The word research is stereotypically viewed as something mystical and uniform in application (Merriam & Simpson, 1984). Often it is cast in terms that suggest absolute objectivity to be the requisite condition to quality. Research also is often thought to be an individually-guided activity in which the researcher is solely responsible for identifying and pursuing what he or she believes to be important. Analysis of meta research findings as well as various crosscultural research studies, however, suggest that although research proposals and reports may be vague, the research itself is not necessarily mystical, nor is total objectivity the ultimate test of acceptable research practice. Some authors point out that, in fact, the definition of research is not uniform around the world (Saif, 1982). And, American researchers are urged to understand the philosophical foundations of education in foreign countries to avoid misinterpretation of research literature. In this paper an attempt is made to review and analyze the derivation and development of research agendas in three societies - China, Canada and the U.S., with the purpose to better understand the foundations of research practice and thus to more clearly interpret publications crossculturally.

This study was initiated from the researcher's experience in working with 85 Chinese adult education administrators, researchers and teachers from twenty provinces of China during the National Adult Education, three-week seminar conducted at the Shanghai Second Institute of Education during the summer, 1987. As part of the seminar participants were asked to list what they believed to be research priorities for adult education in China. The study was conducted also through an analysis of research publications from each of the three countries. In addition to seminar participant responses, literature was reviewed that addressed research priorities and suggested guidelines for research agenda setting in adult and higher education.

Varying Perspectives About Research

Perspectives about research may differ on several dimensions. For example, what research questions are of importance, what methods are appropriate to conduct research, as well as how studies should be reported, all are potential differences scholars are required to address in planning and doing their research. How these dimensions are perceived by researchers and audiences of their work may be influenced by such variables as the particular field of study, the cultural context in which the research is done, or the stage of social and economic development found within the society where the research is conducted.

Literature indicates, for example, that standards for research publication differ among disciplines. Research within the physical sciences is reported primarily through articles and papers. Books are the predominate form of research publication in the social science disciplines. This difference in media is due somewhat to the desire for currency in rapidly expanding fields of knowledge, but also is the result of custom.

Another example of alternative views of research is that some disciplines, such as psychology or economics, utilize empirical-deductive approaches to research that employ highly quantitative forms of analysis, while other social sciences, such as sociology or anthropology often use more qualitative methods of data gathering and analysis.

Knowles (1973) points out one more variation in perspective about appropriate research approaches. Research within a given field of study, according to Knowles, passes through stages of development. As a field matures, so does the sophistication and nature of research mature. At first a field of study must have descriptive data to provide a basis for more sophisticated and interactive research that will later add depth and breath to knowledge of the field.

Brookfield (1982) gives an example of different perspectives that existed between British and North American researchers. A traditional distinction is that North American researchers seem to have a penchant to emphasize quantitative methods, while their U.K. research counterparts stress qualitative approaches. Kulich (1984) points out another distinction. Historically Eastern block countries have moved from solely psychological and pedagogical theory building in the 1950's to extensive empirical research agendas as part of most state research plans, in contrast to their Western counterparts.

This paper will attempt to support the contention that socio-political factors and development stages within a society guide research agenda setting. Although research in adult education is typically conducted by individuals who personally choose what questions are important and how best to do the research, those choices are highly influenced by the social and organizational structure within which research is conducted. All of this points to the importance of better understanding research perspectives crossculturally.

Chinese Research Priorities

Beginning with the formation of the Peoples Republic of China in 1949, China instituted numerous plans to revitalize the education, social and economic climate of the country. Since the end of the cultural revolution in 1976, emphases have changed. According to Yao (1987), culture and basic education formerly was the foundation of adult education in China. With the significant decline in illiteracy has come a change in emphasis - modern science and technology are most important. This is affecting the type of education adults are receiving. The goal of professionalism among adult educators is more prominent. Yao points out that as the education plans for China have developed, need for more training among middle management (cadre) personnel is more apparent.

Also, peasants in the countryside are now viewed as the cornerstone to develop China's economy. This change in emphasis has influenced adult education methodology. Most adult education in China today corresponds to vocational on-the-job training by Western standards. Of the approximate 100 million adults involved in education, 80% are in some form of technical training (Yao, 1987).

Adult education research in China is conducted within universities and institutes of higher education. Approximately 1000 professionals were conducting research full or part-time in China in the mid 80's (Xing, 1987). Xing emphasizes that historically Chinese research has developed from branches of scholarly study emerging in response to social demand. This is how adult education research was born. Chinese adult education research is passing through a descriptive phase of development - simply focusing upon "what is". Researchers coming from other social science disciplines are applying their techniques. Survey techniques, therefore, are being used to describe the feelings and beliefs of participants in education. A problem, according to Rosen (1987),is that these techniques are not producing satisfactory results with regard to validity of information gathered. Although Party work has shifted away from the class struggle to modernization of society, certain conditions impede effective research efforts. Privacy of the Chinese people in revealing feelings, the tendency of researchers to develop surveys that support accepted political views, and inaccurate population sampling are all problems which contribute to weaknesses in research being done.

When the 85 seminar participants were asked to list the most important research topics for adult education in China, it was not surprising to find a like change in emphasis reflected in their responses. The total set of responses seemed to fall within six distinct categories - (1) vocational and professional training, (2) distance education, (3) policies and organization related to adult education, (4) relationship of adult education and economic development, (5) approaches to teaching adults, and (6) the relationship of adult education and social development.

The largest proportion of responses (25) addressed concerns of vocational and professional training. Research priorities in this category included such concerns as organizational leadership in vocational training policies and resources, establishment of professional standards and ways to assess professional qualifications and certification procedures. Also listed of importance was the scope of professional training, including plans for training, and guidelines for development of teaching materials and methods. The second most frequently identified category was approaches to teaching adults (19). This category included research on preparation and selection of teaching materials, teaching methods, and adult learning characteristics and style.

Policy formation and organization of adult education was the third most often identified category (17). Topics listed in this group included the affects of management systems on adult education and studies pertaining to Chinese policy formation that affects adult education. Several participants also recommended an investigation of the adult education constitution in China, a unique feature in Chinese policy.

Questions that focused on distance education were the fourth most frequently listed research topics. Studies of how to institute more distance learning capability on a local and regional basis were frequently mentioned. Presently, distance education is conducted through the broadcasting universities and programs are largely developed and disseminated from a national center. Also, effective methods of delivering and evaluating distance education were listed, as well as how to set up networks and solve problems that presently exist in the organization of distance education in China.

The relationship of adult education economic development was the fifth most often listed set of topics. Largely these research interests centered about how adult education can be more effective in instituting the four modernizations established by former premiere Deng Xioping - meeting the needs of social and economic reconstruction. A primary concern seemed to be how adult education can better mobilize Chinese people to participate in the economic development of their enterprises.

Finally, the adult education and social development category was the only other group of seminar participant responses that seemed to form a significantly identifiable constellation of importance. Topics included, what are the social benefits derived from adult education, to what extent does adult education affect the lives of Chinese people, and how are the trends of adult education related to social needs in the country?

There was only a single request to investigate the contradiction of long work hours required to meet production quotas and participation in adult education classes with no promise of advancement in work status. This topic was expected to be of importance, according to discussions with Chinese adult education professors, but received only isolated recognition by seminar participants.

A North American Comparison

In order to compare research agendas crossculturally it is useful to analyze the derivation of research questions and practices in other countries as points of reference. The U.S. and Canada have distinctly different historical and cultural backgrounds, but also have several social and and geo-political aspects in common. It appears that although Canadian researchers share with their U.S. counterparts the proclivity to do studies of adults in the individual setting (a psychological approach to research), there are signs that Canadian researchers are beginning to focus more on sociologically based research and on the relationship of policy formation and adult education. Also, definitional issues in the field such as the distinction between adult education and adult learning are more apparent as important questions for adult education researchers in Canada. For example, in highlighting the progressive accomplishments of a former director of the Canadian Association for Adult Education, Selman (1985) calls attention to Alan Thomas' vision of a learning society and its implications for public policy and adult education. Also, Thomas is credited for leadership in distinguishing between the basic concepts of adult education and adult learning. The other apparent influence upon research activity is the social and economic problems which Canada has experienced in the recent past. Significant levels of unemployment and the nationalism issue, particularly as it influenced eastern Canada, have appeared to affect the research agenda. The vast, sparsely inhabited territory that makes up the country also has impacted research priorities in Canada. The Canadian Society for the Study of Higher Education (1984), for example, listed as priority items in their proposed development of a research network for supporting post-secondary education, (1) access-ability, (2) opportunity, (3) mobility, (4) employability, and (5) official languages.

Most adult education research in the U.S. is conducted by graduate students who are fulfilling requirements for a graduate degree. Although the same is true for Canada, a sensitivity to time parameters seems to influence American student scholars differently. The nature of graduate research dictates certain boundaries that influence choice of topic as well as the methods to be used. For example. research topics are somewhat, if not entirely determined by the faculty available and interested in directing the research. Also, the amount of time required to conduct a study influences the attractiveness of certain research methods. Longitudinal, historical, or other forms of research that may require qualitative methodology are not as frequently pursued as methods that require less time. Studies produced by graduate students in general are isolated pursuits with little conscious effort toward long-term investigation or toward theory building. Theory testing appears to be more in vogue.

Another observation is that research content seems to be moving away from descriptive studies primarily, according to Boyd & Rice (1986) and is improving in quality. More energy seems to be devoted to defining the field and to conceptual development of common terms that undergird practice, such as self directed learning and continuing professional education. There remains, however, the American penchant to focus on the psychology of adult learning in contrast to studying adult learning within the social context. How policy formation influences adult education at the state or federal level in the U.S. is not the subject of many dissertations.

Conclusion

In examining the sources of research agenda development within the three countries chosen for this comparative study, definite difference seemed apparent. China adult education researchers are attempting to describe "what is" for a base line of information to develop a more expansive agenda in the future. Primary research interests are directed toward the relationship adult education has with implementing the social policy of the four modernizations. The Chinese have different questions and seek to "catch up" by selectively utilizing technologies from the West. As a result, they are transposing social science techniques, perhaps some inappropriately, to answer descriptive questions. Because of the large population and vast territory involved, methods of distance education seem very important. In contrast, Canada seems to have past the descriptive phase of research agenda setting. For example, fewer Canadian researchers are asking questions about how distance education can be carried out effectively. Rather, they are asking "why" questions about the present and future policies that affect adult education. Although andragogy has strong roots in Canadian higher education institutions, adult education research appears to be approached as an aberration - from stance of applied disciplines rather than a field of research unto itself. This perhaps is the result of European influence evident in much of Canadian higher education.

The U.S. research agenda by contrast, seems to be dominated by the interests of graduate research directors, with some contributions from private foundation, and a few state and federal grants that are responses to current societal demands such as irradication of illiteracy.

Boyd, R. H. & Rice, D. (1986). An overview of research activity in adult and continuing education.Continuum, 50(1), 37-46.

Brookfield, S. (1982). Adult education research: a comparison of north american and british theory and practice. International Journal of Lifelong Education, 1(2), 157-167.

Knowles, M. S. (1973). Sequential research needs in evolving disciplines of social practice. Adult Education, 23, 298-303.

Kulich, J. (1984). Approaches to theory building and research in adult education in eastern europe. International Journal of Lifelong Education,3(2), 127-136.

Merriam, S., & Simpson, E. (1984). A guide to research for educators and trainers of adults. Malabar, FL: Krieger.

Rosen, S. (1985). Survey research in the people's republic of china: some methodological problems. R. Hayhoe (Ed.), Chinese educators on Chinese education. Canadian and International Education, 16(1), 190-197.

Saif, P. S. (1982). Problems and issues in international educational research exchange. Paper presented at American Educational Research Association, New York, March 19-23.

Xing, Z. (1985). Research into higher education in china: its emergence and prospects. Canadian and International Education, 16(1), 33-39.

Yao, Z. (1987). Four modernizations and adult education in china. Paper presented at Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, IL, November 2.

EXPLORING THE ETHICS OF PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE

Thomas J. Sork, University of British Columbia

Abstract: This paper describes a research methodology and analytical procedure which was designed to (1) gather data about the extent of certain practices that should be debated on ethical grounds and the content of moral arguments put forward to justify or refute the practices and (2) assist practitioners in the exploration of ethical issues by providing a structured process through which they can examine the moral dimensions of their work.

Background

Ethics as an area of scholarly and professional interest has a short history in adult education. Lawson (1979) observed that adult educators have succeeded in avoiding discussion of ethical issues because of a "learner-centered" rhetoric, but that the ethics of practice cannot be escaped. It has only been in the past ten years that the literature has reflected any substantive concern with the ethics of practice. Examples of publications reflecting this concern include: Maidment and Losito (1980) who considered the ethics of training; Lenz (1982) who identified issues related to administration and teaching; Singarella and Sork (1983) who discussed the role of ethics in adult education and identified specific ethical issues related to program planning; Pearson and Kennedy (1985) who explored "business ethics" in continuing professional education; Felch (1986) who considered ethical issues faced by providers of continuing medical education, and Bourgeault (1987) who discussed the need for an "ethics of intervention" in adult education. A just-published book (Brockett, 1988) represents the first attempt to address the full range of ethical issues in adult education practice.

A consideration of the ethics of practice is inescapable if anything approaching a complete understanding of practice is ever to be achieved. Practitioners are constantly making choices with ethical consequences. Forrester (1982) described the central role of evaluative judgments:

> Among the most important judgments we are called upon to make are evaluations: assessments of the worth of things, actions, and persons. Hardly a day goes by that we do not need to decide what is the right thing to do in a given situation and what is the best procedure for doing it. To this end, we need to appraise objects and actions as good, bad, or indifferent. We must compare them with each other to determine which is better in some respect or other. We must choose, from what is sometimes a vast number of alternative courses of action, how to spend every moment of our lives. At least to the extent that these choices are consciously made, we make them on the basis of which alternative seems better in some way than the others. (p. ix)

The purpose of this paper is to present, in outline form, a methodology that can be used by researchers to study the ethics of practice and by practitioners as a tool for individual and organizational development. Although still in the formative stages of development, the current version of the Ethical Practices Audit (EPA) provides a systematic way of structuring the identification and analysis of practices that have moral consequences and produces data useful for understanding the ethical dimension of adult education practice.

Before presenting a description of the methodology, a brief clarification of terms is required. As used in this paper, "ethics" is defined as "the systematic exploration of questions about how we should act in relation to others" (Rhodes, 1986, p. 21). The notion of "practice" is interpreted broadly to include current or planned actions, policies, or behaviors that affect others and that can be justified or refuted on moral grounds. "Audit" is used as in common discourse to describe a methodical review and analysis. The EPA, then, is a methodical review and analysis of current or planned actions, policies, or behaviors that affect others in order to identify and evaluate the moral principles that underlie practice.

Prerequisite Conditions

Exploration of the ethics of practice has the potential to be both exhilarating and destructive. When used as a research methodology or as a means of professional or organizational development, several prerequisites should be met. First, participation in the process should be voluntary. All those whose functions might be included in the audit should have free choice to participate or not without any negative consequences attached to the decision. Second, the audit should not be initiated in response to an accusation of unethical or improper behavior. Although such accusations may be one of several reasons for engaging in the EPA, they should be adjudicated separately from and prior to the audit. Third, those who propose engaging in the EPA should do so for professional or organizational development purposes rather than as a means of publicly exposing the perceived ethical shortcomings of individuals or organizations. Fourth, if there is an explicit mission statement or other document that provides evidence of an organizational philosophy, or if there is consensus on a set of principles that should guide practice within the organization, then that information should be made available and reviewed prior to beginning the audit. Such statements provide a reference point for the auditors allowing comparisons between actions and espoused principles.

Steps in the Audit

The current version of the Ethical Practices Audit is based on an outline of the procedure presented by Sork (1987) and consists of ten steps.

Step 1: Decide who to involve in the audit. An Ethical Practices Audit could be proposed by anyone interested in exploring the ethics of practice, but the decision about who to involve in the process should be both deliberate and defensible. Individual practitioners may engage in an audit of their own practice, or two or more practitioners may engage in an audit of collective practice within an organization. To be avoided are situations where those to be involved in the audit will be analyzing functions and practices which are the responsibility of someone who was not invited to participate or chose not to participate in the audit. It is therefore likely that the question of who to involve in the audit will be reconsidered after Step 2 or Step 3 when it becomes clear what functions and practices will be included.

Step 2: Identify functions to include in the audit. The word "functions" is deliberately ambiguous because of the diversity of activities found in adult education organizations. It is meant to represent clusters of activities that are amenable to analysis and can logically be placed under one heading. Examples include instruction, admissions, marketing, administration, counseling, planning, evaluation, and so on. It is possible that the audit will be limited to one or two program areas, or sub-units within the organization. Such decisions should be made at this stage so that all concerned have a clear idea of the scope of the audit.

Step 3: Specify the practices to be analyzed for each function. Practices are current or planned actions, policies, or behaviors that affect others. While it is important to the success of the audit to identify all practices that are judged relevant to the function, it is desirable to exclude practices that are judged morally benign—that is, practices with no conceivable moral consequences. A danger here is that those making the decisions about what to include or exclude will not be sufficiently sensitive to the moral consequences of practices and will error by excluding practices with substantial, but unrecognized, moral consequences.

From a research perspective, the product of this step is interesting because it represents the auditors' view of what practices are not benign from a moral/ethical viewpoint. The resulting list could be used to construct survey research instruments for administration to practitioners for the purpose of identifying practices most often of concern, again from a moral/ethical point of view. One can only speculate on how cultural differences may influence responses, but it seems reasonable to predict some variance due to the cultural milieu in which practitioners work.

Step 4: Prepare moral arguments to justify and refute each practice. Here the task becomes one of developing arguments using what Talmor (1984) calls value language. Value language invokes explicit prescriptive statements in order to justify or refute a practice. A prescriptive statement commends or condemns an action based on a value held by the auditor rather than on the basis of an empirically-verifiable consequence of the action. Constructing such arguments is not an easy task and some auditors may experience difficulty in distinguishing value language from non-value language. The point of this step is to make explicit the moral reasoning which can be used to justify and refute each practice.

It can be claimed that developing one argument (to justify) or the other (to refute) should be sufficient in order to clarify the value basis of current practice. Indeed, such an assertion is correct if the only purpose of this process is to reveal the value positions which auditors hold in relation to the practices they have identified as having non-benign moral consequences. but another purpose of the audit is to encourage the consideration of alternative value positions for each practice so that an informed judgment can be made about whether the practice should be continued, modified, terminated, or, in the case of planned practice, instituted.

Step 5: Refine the arguments. The initial arguments from the previous step are now reviewed and refined so that they are as compelling and complete as possible. This step may be redundant if the arguments developed in the preceding step are as detailed and convincing as the auditors can make them. However, this step provides an opportunity to strengthen the arguments so that there is no question about the value positions which underlie the justifications and refutations.

For research purposes, these refined arguments represent very interesting data since they reveal in a rough way the quality of moral reasoning among the auditors. For practices which have generated considerable public debate the arguments can be assessed to determine if the reasoning displayed in public debate is reflected in the arguments or whether the arguments reflect a more local or idiosyncratic value position. Taken together, the collective arguments can be analyzed to determine if there seems to be a consistent set of moral principles guiding the reasoning of the auditors. The audit process does not ask for the generation of "guiding moral principles" a priori, but such principles may become apparent at this stage in the process.

Step 6: Discuss and debate the arguments. Although a good deal of discussion and debate may take place during the preparation and refinement of arguments, this step focuses attention on the task of deliberate and thorough consideration of all arguments presented to justify and refute each practice. This step may involve additional practitioners who are not otherwise participating in the audit. At the end of this step those involved should have clarified any ambiguities remaining in the arguments and will likely have taken a tentative position on each practice.

Step 7: Identify and discuss ethical consequences of continuing, modifying, terminating, or instituting each practice. These four options represent the most likely outcomes of the audit. The task here is to consider what will happen from a moral/ethical perspective if these actions are taken. It is at this point that ethical dilemmas may become apparent. An ethical dilemma is a situation where any action taken produces some undesirable moral consequences. Consideration of ethical consequences should influence the positions taken by participants in the audit. Another likely outcome of this step is the desire to generate alternative practices, ones that have more desirable or fewer undesirable moral consequences.

Step 8: Identify and discuss practical consequences of continuing, modifying, terminating, or instituting each practice. Now the discussion shifts from consideration of the abstract (moral consequences) to the concrete (practical consequences). Because it is somewhat artificial to separate discussion of moral and practical consequences, it is likely that some of the latter have already been identified in the previous step. Nevertheless, it is desirable to partition the consequences into these two categories so that the auditors understand the distinction.

Consideration of consequences is to a large extent speculative. That is, the auditors will be making "best guesses" about what will happen given certain actions. Since it is speculative, disagreement can be expected. The goal is not to reach total agreement but rather to forge reasonable consensus on what the most likely consequences will be. Whenever possible, auditors should buttress their assertions with empirical data or logical argument.

Step 9: Decide which practices will be continued, modified, terminated, or instituted. This step calls for the making of a decision about each practice included in the audit. It assumes that all present, planned, and alternative practices have been identified and analyzed and that the auditors are now prepared and empowered to decide the fate of each practice. The decisions reached may be communicated in the form of recommendations to be considered by agency administrators or others who reserve the "final word" on changes likely to alter the nature of the organization. This step has the potential to create discord among those involved in the audit since a decision represents, in part, a commendation or condemnation of practices. If a decision is made to terminate a cluster of practices that have become part of the operating routine of practitioners, then the decision represents a form of condemnation of past practice. In addition, any decision to modify the status quo represents a change, and change is often considered threatening.

Step 10: Prepare summary report and action plan. By the time decisions are made about each practice, participants have devoted a substantial amount of time and energy to the audit. This step involves preparing a summary report of the audit process and an action plan that stipulates how the decisions made in Step 9 will be implemented. Summarizing the audit process is desirable because the report will provide a history of the activity and will presumably be made available to others who might wish to understand how decisions were made. The report should contain the following information: who was involved in the audit, what practices were included, what arguments were used to justify and refute each practice, what decisions were made regarding each practice, and what moral and practical consequences are expected for each decision. In addition, the report should specify any moral/ethical principles proposed as guides for practice. If prepared in this manner, the report will contain useful data for understanding the ethical viewpoint of those involved in the audit. A detailed assessment of the report should also reveal the degree to which the auditors seem to operating from a consistent moral framework.

An action plan is desirable because it specifies what needs to be done, who is responsible for each task, and when tasks should be completed. Without an action plan, the changes proposed in the audit may not be made. Although the preparation of an action plan does not guarantee implementation of the changes, it should increase the probability that the changes will be made.

Uses of the Ethical Practices Audit

It has been suggested that the EPA can be used as a research methodology and as a tool for individual and organizational development. Little is known about the ethics of practice in adult education. To date the literature on the ethics of practice has been primarily exhortatory and theoretical. The audit process represents one means of moving beyond exhortation and theory to knowledge regarding how practitioners think about the ethical dimension of their work. Strengths and shortcomings of the EPA as a research methodology will become apparent as it is used with practitioners in various types of agencies and in different cultural contexts.

As a tool for individual and organizational development, the EPA provides a structured process for discussing and analyzing the ethics of practice. It may be considered by some to be overly structured or reductionistic, but it is easily modified to meet the requirements of the situation. Based on feedback from a small number of practitioners, it may be difficult for auditors to develop moral arguments to justify or refute practices without first seeing an example of the process or working through a case study to illustrate the process. In order to improve the utility of the EPA, a substantial instructional component may be necessary. If this is required, the utility of the audit as a research methodology may be reduced since any instructional component is likely to introduce bias because any illustrations of moral arguments will necessarily be grounded in one cultural context. It remains to be seen whether the EPA can be used successfully for cross-cultural comparative study of the ethical dimension of adult education practice.

References

Bourgeault, G. (1987). Formation des adultes et ethique: Jalons pour une ethique de l'educateur d'adultes. Canadian Journal of University Continuing Education, 8 (1), 32-52.

Brockett, R. G. (Ed.). (1988). Ethical issues in adult education. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University.

Felch, W. C. (1986). Ethics and continuing medical education. Mobius, 6 (1), 80-85.

Forrester, M. G. (1982). Moral language. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.

Lawson, K. H. (1979). *Philosophical concepts and values in adult education* (Revised edition). Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Lenz, E. (1982). *The art of teaching adults.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Maidment, R. and Losito, W. F. (1980). *Ethics and professional trainers.* Madison, Wisconsin: American Society for Training and Development. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 186 980.)

Pearson, G. A. and Kennedy, M. S. (1985). Business ethics: Implications for providers and faculty of continuing education. *Journal of Continuing Education in Nursing, 16* (1), 4-6.

Rhodes, M. L. (1986). *Ethical dilemmas in social work practice.* Boston: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Singarella, T. A. & Sork, T. J. (1983). Questions of value and conduct: Ethical issues for adult education. *Adult Education Quarterly, 33* (4), 244-251.

Sork, T. J. (1987). Ethics and actions. In C. Klevins (Ed.), *Materials and methods in adult and continuing education* (pp. 50-55). Los Angeles: Klevens Publications.

Talmor, E. (1984). *Language and ethics.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

THE EFFECTS OF SOCIAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS ON INFORMAL TEACHING-LEARNING TRANSACTIONS BETWEEN FEMALE NURSES AND FEMALE PHYSICIANS

Carolyn B. Stegman, Ed.D., R.N.

This research, using the Grounded Theory methodological approach, studied the professional relationships of women in medicine and nursing to assess how gender similarity affected individual motivation and patient care. Results showed that the transactional process was different and generally more positive between female physicians and female nurses than between male physicians and female nurses.

Patient care in a hospital setting is directly related to the professional information and knowledge exchange between physicians and nurses concerning patients in their care. These transactions occur many times daily, often at a patient's bedside and, depending on the quality and scope, can actually affect the outcome of a patient's illness. Ideally these exchanges include knowledge dissemination, mutual problem solving, and planning. One presents information, the other assimilates this in relation to her role, and reacts to produce a plan and prescription. Communication between the two is purposeful and oriented toward learning and problem solving. Therefore, the more information presented in the transaction, the more criteria one has on which to base a decision and plan of action which can contribute to patient well-being.

The difference between the medical and nursing professions have included educational and role variations, economic disparities, class stratification, and gender. These have often led to adversity, diminishing the quality of informal profession information and knowledge exchanges regarding patients known as informal teaching-learning transactions.

One of these traditional doctor/nurse distinctions, that of gender, is changing as women take advantage of new career opportunities afforded them. In 1986, 31% of all medical school graduates in the U.S. were women. This research studied the informal teaching-learning transactions of women in medicine and nursing to assess the affect of gender within this transactional process.

The research model for this study was Grounded Theory, a qualitative approach to social research whereby data is systematically obtained and analyzed, hence the theory is "grounded" in data. It focuses on describing social interaction and therefore relies heavily on data from informal interviews and observation. Grounded theory is a particularly useful method for studying human interaction phenomena about which little is known and where a substantial body of previously established theory has not been created.

Fifty interviews (approximately one hour each) were conducted, which consisted of 27 female physicians and 23 nurses. Interviewees were representative of a wide geographic area, work situations and institutional sizes. Each interview was taped, transcribed, and analyzed before the next interview took place.

Results clearly showed that interviewees felt there was a difference in the professional transaction and relationship of women physicians and nurses than between male physicians and nurses. This effect was generally positive as evidenced in participant satisfaction and in improved aspects of patient care.

Positive transactions began with the establishment of a climate characterized by increased approachability and decreased social distance and professional authority, which in turn facilitated a nurturing environment. Within this nurturing environment was an enhanced reward structure symbolized by recognition of work and role, exchange of compliments, solicitation of opinions, and listening. Likewise, there was a shared commitment to helping each other. In essence, one positive characteristic produced others.

Such a milieu optimized individual and professional motivation. A comfortable climate opened doors, encouraging each participant to contribute her expertise to the ongoing success of these processes, thereby enhancing personal rewards. Women physicians and nurses shared each others' scientific data bases, fostering unity of their respective professions and creating colleagueship.

The ultimate benefit of a positive teaching-learning transaction was to the patient. Basically, the kind of climate generated between women physicians and nurses was extended to patients, allowing them to more fully participate in this process. This is especially evident beyond the clinical prescriptive component, in the realm of psychological aspects, patient education, and discharge planning. Here participants felt that their sensitivity to these issues enhanced the humanistic element of patient care by integrating the disease with the person, and communicating this verbally and tactilely. There was greater attention to patient comfort, concern in diagnosing and resolving potential psychological problems, and personal involvement is post-hospitalization planning and patient education. Participants felt that this led to increased patient compliance, improved care, and better resolution of the consequences of illness on a person's life style.

Women physicians and nurses perceived that the enhanced quality of these transactions was rooted in the similar socialization background of women, with resultant integration of their social conditioning with professionalism. They focused on two areas. The first area was that of feminine characteristics which emerged from common patterns of upbringing. The foremost of these, nurturance, was recognized as a strength and desired attribute, particularly as applied to health care. The shared capacities of female physicians and nurses to nurture produced remarkable rapport. A similarly powerful emotional and biological binder was motherhood. They felt that these connections influenced their views on life, illness, and death, and their capacities to provide care while supporting the process. Again, out of these shared traits surfaced the feeling of a more humanistic approach to patient care.

The second area was that of the repressive aspects of feminine socialization. This became increasingly important as interviewees reviewed their feelings on historically limited and prescribed opportunities for women in our society. The concept of minority, and the factors of discrimination inherent in this status, produced mutual empathy, a strong sense of being female, a sometimes joint recognition of male oppression, and a bond in the professional relationship. This was further exemplified by reciprocal support, recognition, encouragement, desired deviations from traditional doctor-nurse relations, role modeling, mentoring, and pride. Most nurses were proud of women's breakthrough into male dominated medicine and most female physicians vocalized awareness of the vital role and importance of nursing

The gender of the participants affected the transaction in other ways. For instance, between women there was less humor and more projected need to apologize for real or imagined deviations from the expected positive relationship. Women participants, in analyzing humor, saw different amounts, types, and reasons for humor in transactions between men and women and between themselves. In the former transactions, humor was seen as a form of flirtation, attraction, manipulation, or expression of discomfort. Transactions within this framework could have ulterior motives and connotations. In transactions between women, humor was not prevalent because of the initial comfortableness established, which subsequently reduced the need for manipulative behaviors. Furthermore, flirtation and attraction were absent between most women.

The need to apologize also directly related to gender. Women acknowledged that anger or aggressive behaviors were not socially acceptable feminine characteristics, therefore, these behaviors could induce guilt. Beyond this uncomfortableness, they recognized that the perception of these behaviors triggered a hostility in some women which could permanently mar future transactions.

Authority became a complex issue which could, through its reduction in professional relationships, encourage approachability and enhanced transactions. This was a sensitive area for female physicians. First, they acknowledged that masculinity, authority, and power were strongly correlated in our society, and that, therefore, women were accustomed to having males in authoritative positions. So women knew that they could not command this style with results equal to men. Second, women physicians did not necessarily want to perpetuate the traditional pattern of power which expects and receives submission. They sought a practical personal power: that of a convincing force which achieves respect by its very nature. But this often posed a dilemma and caused frustrations. They wanted to reduce the image of overpowering authority, yet because of their role, they felt the need to retain some authority. How to do this and to what degree were often difficult questions to answer.

The ambivalence of women M.D.s regarding authority was focused in issues relating to whether they should be formally or informally addressed by the nurses and how much they should socialize. Furthermore, even as some female physicians sought to reduce doctor/nurse barriers by inviting nurses to call them by their first names, they felt that some nurses did this automatically to reduce their status as physicians. Hence, complexities were apparent as behaviors manifested between two individuals generated diverse interpretations and reactions.

Sometimes the positive climate created by female M.D.´s transactions with nurses was related to their perceptions of their lessened authority rather than feminine bonding. For example, some transactions transpired because female physicians felt their orders did not carry as much credibility with nurses as those of their male counterparts. To compensate, they expanded the transaction (i.e. verbal explanations of orders and treatment goals); it became their form of sexual manipulation. As a last resort, the female physician did evoke the power granted to her by profession. In these cases, the progressive educational and managerially effective techniques so often seen in a positive transaction between women were sometimes replaced by traditional role authority and reactional behaviors, all capable of provoking dramatic negative effects in future relations.

Another social factor relating to authority was nursing´s progressive liberation and desired autonomy. Nurses viewed traditional male M.D. authority as repressive and controlling. This was vividly seen as nurses felt that the success of a transaction with particular male M.D.s relied significantly on a skillful and disguised methodology rather than actual content. This condemnation of traditional power coupled with their decreased ability to be intimidated by women, often precipitated some adverse reactions to female M.D.s. And some hostilities of nurses towards the authority of males and/or M.D.s was substantially bolder when projected on to a woman. This was especially true if they perceived that a female M.D. flaunted this authority over them in a symbolic gesture of gender "one-upmanship." In essence, nurses were extremely sensitive to the way females M.D.s presented themselves and treated nurses.

There were other factors which could regress the established positive transaction. Among these were the education, status, and financial discrepancies between the two professions. While these have always been apparent, there seemed to be more acceptance of these discrepancies between men and women than between women. A vivid example of this is demonstrated when sometimes the degree of positive transaction between women might just depend on the expense of the clothes worn by the female M.D. A female physician in a $300 suit and wearing a two-carat diamond did much to focus the nurse´s attention on the inequalities between the professions.

Women recognized that they did compete with other women. They compared themselves on everything from attractiveness to body image to intelligence. And sometimes underlying these comparisons was the motive of vying for the sexual and professional attention of men, often at the expense of other women.

The female physician did prompt nurses to examine their personal goals and profession. Nurses recognized lower esteem in their profession and felt that the status and salaries of nursing were not equitable to those of physicians. Seeing feminine contemporaries with all of these desired amenities, at the very least, induced reflection, which was sometimes exhibited as hostility, or jealousy. This was exacerbated as M.D./nurse levels of job satisfaction became particularly dichotomous.

Perhaps more than anything else, unmet expectations among women were at the core of barriers between women that could result in reduced quality teaching-learning transactions. And women had more than a few expectations for each other, extending equally within their own profession as within the other. They saw themselves as a minority with all the obligations and struggles that this represented. Subsequently, they expected professionalism, equitable treatment, competence, positive nurturing, esprit de corp, support, and respect. Women were particularly degrading of each other when sexual seductiveness preempted professionalism, or if women emphasized status and role differences. What they might tolerate from men, such as risque jokes and accentuated status, was not tolerated from women. Furthermore, women were expected to do things that men were not, such as helping in the direct care of the patient. While the latter was viewed as a generally positive aid to communication, the extent of expectations was often perceived as unrealistic.

In summary, the teaching-learning transactions among women in medicine and nursing were different than between male M.D.s and nurses, and this difference was largely a positive one. There was more interaction , and so much so that many felt patient care benefitted significantly. But sometimes, nestled within these positive processes and outcomes, was the potential for problems. Therefore, initial desired colleagueship between these women because of their gender was sometimes replaced by an adversarial competitiveness, also because of their gender.

The doctor/nurse relationship is an important one, and to the extent that colleagueship is promoted, health care will benefit. Studying the relationship of women physicians and nurses has added to this ongoing process. It will be important to continue: for the respective professions, respective genders, and ultimately for the patient.

Many of the aspects of this specific gender relationship are evident in all professions. Feminine socialization, reaction to past oppression, motherhood, women's expectations for each other, competition, and the such are concepts which can be juxtaposed with law, education, and business, as well as medicine. The mores which contribute to feminine bonding or the development of barriers occur throughout our society and are exposed in many professional environments. Hopefully this research and future research will add to increased understanding of the social and environmental factors which bond or create barriers among women, and enhance the strengths of feminine contributions to the professional world and between each other.

Bibliography available upon request.

IMAGERY: A TREATMENT FOR ADULT STUDENT ANXIETY

Rebecca L. Stephens, PhD.,R.N. The Florida State University

Lloyd Korhonen, PhD. The University of Oklahoma

ABSTRACT: This study was designed to explore the use of imagery as a treatment for adult student anxiety. Using a sample of generic nursing student volunteers (n=100), an audiotape imagery treatment was used. Imagery was found to be effective in lowering student anxiety. Cross's model of adult learning was used as the theoretical framework.

Patricia Cross (1979) suggests in her excellent book, Adults As Learners, that returning to school for many adults occurs as the result of a maturational or situational life crisis. Havinghurst's (1952) and Neugarten's (1968) research clarifies the importance of the developmental tasks of the adult life cycle. Maturational crises, occurring as certain milestone events (i.e. mid-life crisis, retirement, and grandchildren), can generate high anxiety.

RN students returning to complete a BSN degree, frequently have heavy family and work responsibilities. This produces dichotomous roles; full-time role - "breadwinner," part-time role - nursing student. Marienau and Chickerling (1982, p. 2) state, "In adults, the student role is secondary...sandwiched between other demands". Pappas (1985, p. 142) elaborates by saying, "Even when extensively engaged in education, adults see themselves first in occupational and family roles. They are much more apt to describe themselves as managers, teachers, and mothers than as students." Attending a traditionally designed nursing program can cause great stress for these students.

The purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of imagery in reducing anxiety in first year nursing students. Imagery is one of several mental processes which can be used to reduce that stress and anxiety. Others which have been tried include biofeedback, meditation, and relaxation. Benson's (1975) work found relaxation to be very effective in reducing stress. Biofeedback has also proven effective (Brown, 1975).

Everyone uses imagery in their life. Memory, day dreams, dreams and hallucinations are all forms of imagery. Some of these states are voluntary, like memory and day dreams. Others, like the Alpha periods that occur just before sleep or upon awaking are only partially under voluntary control. Alpha periods also occur naturally after intense periods of concentration (Samuels and Samuels, 1984). Other types of imagery such as dreams and hallucinations are totally beyond voluntary control.

Studies of right and left hemispheric function indicate that the right and left "brain" process information differently. The left hemisphere analyzes, abstracts ideas, counts, marks time, and plans logically. (Whitrock, 1977) For example, when you planned your trip to England, your left brain calculated when you would have to purchase your ticket in order to get the best price. The right hemisphere of the brain shows us how things exist in space and how pieces fit together. It is believed that we use the right hemispheric mode to create ideas and draw new conclusions. The right brain functioning is characterized by paradigm shifts and leaps of understanding - An "Uh! Huh! now I understand" type of learning (Whitrock, 1977). Carl Jung (1964) was one of the first psychologist to address the idea of imagery. He believed that new insights could be gained by actively using our "alpha" times to bypass the censorship of the ego.

Studies of imagery are very rare. Imagery appears in the literature in three areas, psychotherapy, cognitive behaviorist studies, and in medical literature, especially immunology. There is much documentation of the role of the mind in psychosomatic illness. The mind has a constant and powerful effect on our lives. Nevertheless, few researchers have tried to document the use of imagery as a treatment for anxiety. Many of the studies that appear in the literature are reports of "once only" occurrences, unique to a specific client situation. In addition, most of these studies look at pathological anxiety (Singer, 1974).

Only three studies of imagery as a treatment for student anxiety were found in the educational literature. Weissberg (1977) found "coping imagery" increased the effectiveness of desensitization therapy. Similarly, Hymen and Warren (1985) combined imagery with rational emotive therapy and found that test anxiety was lower in the group combined with imagery. Ayres and Hopf (1985), while studying speech anxiety, found that imagery is more effective when the person visualizes themselves as having a problem and working through to a successful completion than when they picture only success. One limitation of these studies is the very small sample size of these studies (n=7,10,12 per cell). In addition these studies did not identify the characteristics of the sample such as age, marital status, etc. to help determine their usefulness in predicting success with adult college students. No studies were found that used imagery as a primary intervention in the treatment of anxiety.

The purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of imagery to reduce student anxiety. The following research questions were explored: 1) Will imagery lower student anxiety? 2) Will imagery combined with relaxation be a more effective treatment than imagery alone? and 3) Will imagery increase the student's test performance.

Patricia Cross (1979) has proposed a model to explain adult student reentry into the educational environment. One aspect of her model suggests that reentry is determined in part by the student's perception of their ability. She contends that, "stress lies in the perception of events, not in the events themselves." Stress is internal; it is the individual's response which may reflect dissatisfaction with self, inability to accept failure, a negative self-image, or feelings of hopelessness. Thus the level of anxiety reflects both internal feelings of insecurities as well as external stressors from the learning environment. Cross believes it is this perception which prevents many adult learners from returning to school. Patricia Cross's Model of Participation in adult education was the guiding theoretical framework for this study.

Methodology. One hundred and fifty-nine students from five public institutions of higher learning were divided by random assignment into three groups; two experimental groups and a control group. The two experimental groups were treated with imagery. The first treatment group was exposed to an audiotape, using imagery which depicted the successful completion of their nursing course. This group was instructed to use the tape for 15 minutes once a day for five days and then three times a week for three weeks. They were told they could listen to the tape at any time they wished, including driving in the car.

The second treatment group was exposed to the same imagery treatment, but the tape for this group included a five minute relaxation technique presented before the imagery. This group was instructed to use the tape for 20 minutes each day for five days consecutively and then three times a week for the remainder of the study. However, the imagery tape with the relaxation was to be used only when the subject was sitting alone in a quiet place. The imagery was the same for both groups. The control group had no tape.

It was expected that the subjects who used the imagery would have less anxiety that the subjects in the control group. Also, it was expected that the treatment combining imagery with relaxation would be more effective in lowering anxiety than the imagery treatment alone. A minimum cell size, n-35, was determined by performing a Cohen (1977) Power Analysis using a confidence level of .05, a power of .8, and an effect size of .3 respectively. The effect size of the treatment was considered to be a medium to large effect.

The subjects of this study were from public institutions of higher learning in the southcentral and southeast portions of the United States currently enrolled in an ADN or BSN nursing program. Only female students who volunteered for the study were included in the sample. All data was coded to protect the student's rights to privacy and only group data was reported. The Speilberger State-Trait Anxiety Inventory was used to measure student anxiety. This inventory consists of 40 statements that allow the respondent to rate their present feelings of anxiousness on a scale ranging from one to four, with one indicating no anxiousness and four indicating high anxiety. Speilberger et al. (1983) established construct and concurrent validity, and test-retest reliability for the inventory.

The A-State portion of the inventory was given as a pretest and again as a post-test four weeks later. The A-Trait portion of the inventory, measuring a stable personality trait, was used as a delimiting factor. Any student with scores on the A-Trait which were more than two standard deviations from the national norms for A-Trait established by Speilberger were eliminated from the data analysis.

Student anxiety fluctuates during the semester. The literature (Sobol, 1978) identifies the time period prior to each examination as a time of high stress for the students. It was imperative that similar periods of anxiety be used to maintain the validity of the anxiety measures. Therefore, the time period just prior to two consecutive examinations during the semester was used to administer the pre-test and post-test.

At the end of the study students were asked to complete a tape evaluation questionnaire to determine which of the subjects in the sample actually used the imagery treatment. Only data from subjects in the treatment groups who listened to the tapes five or more times were included is the analysis. A pilot study was used to determine the five time minimum. Similarly, anyone in the control group who had listened to a treatment tape was dropped from the data analysis.

Findings. The final sample included 31 subjects in the imagery/relaxation group, 31 subjects in the imagery only group, and 38 subjects in the control group. These delimiting factors resulted in 100 observations for data analysis.

An ANOVA was run on the pre-test A-State scores to assess the similarity of the three groups. No difference was found, using the Cochron's C for homogeneity. The data were also examined to determine the distribution of each of the moderating variables within the three experimental groups. The variables examined were age, marital status, ADN/BSN, semester in nursing major, number of children living at home, numbers of hours work, and number of credit hours in which currently enrolled. A chi-square frequency test was performed on each of the variables by group. The number of children living at home was the only variable of significance (p - .0033). There were more children living at home with the subjects in the imagery only group. The literature suggests the presence of children might increase the stress for subjects in this group.

Since the ANOVA of the pre-test A-State scores approached significance (p - .17), the researcher chose to report the results of the analysis of covariance for the post-test anxiety scores with the pre-test as covariant. Leedy (1974) suggests that when using a quasi-experimental design, the use of the conservative statistical approach is appropriate. The resulting f ratio of 18.69 is significant at the .001 level. The Tukey's HSD indicated that the control group was significantly different from both of the treatment groups. However, there was no significant difference between the imagery/relaxation group and the imagery-only group.

It can be concluded from these findings that the imagery treatment used in this experiment had a significant effect on student anxiety. The first hypothesis was accepted. In addition, the statistical results suggest that the imagery combined with the relaxation was no more effective than the imagery treatment alone. Since the imagery used for each treatment was identical, this outcome indicates that the relaxation did not increase the effectiveness of the imagery. The second hypothesis, predicting that imagery would be more effective when combined with relaxation, was rejected.

Finally, the hypothesis that students' test performance would be higher in the imagery groups than in the control group was also rejected. The test scores of all subjects from their nursing exam following the post-test were converted to z-scores, using means and standard deviations from each of the teacher made nursing examinations. An ANOVA, performed on these scores, yielded an f ratio = 2.77 which was not statistically significant (p=.0667).

Data obtained on the tape evaluation questionnaire revealed that the subjects in this study, who used the imagery tapes, expressed an increased feeling of wellbeing; such as ability to sleep, increased energy, and greater self confidence after using the treatment tapes. Many of the students enjoyed this renewed sense of control over their lives. Many of the students who had the tape with the relaxation, reported falling asleep while they listened to the tape. Since the imagery/relaxation tape was longer and required total concentration, there was a greater time commitment necessary for these students. Perhaps this acted as a deferent.

It seems that students either loved the imagery tape or found it boring. It is interesting that many of the students who disliked the tape also reported that they had listened to it only once or not at all. On the other hand, students who enjoyed the tape listened to it almost daily and several subjects made copies for friends and fellow students in other discipline. There seemed to be few students with moderate positions on the value of the imagery tape. Forty of the sixty-two students in the experimental groups indicated that they would recommend the use of the tape to another student. About half of these students used the phrase "highly recommend" when asked "would you recommend this tape to another student". However, only thirty of these students said they would anticipate using the tape themselves again.

Discussion and Recommendations. The results of this study suggest that imagery is an effective intervention for reducing student anxiety. Student's who used the imagery tapes had less anxiety, as measured by the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, than students who did not listen to the imagery tape. These results concur with Weissberg's study (1977) of speech anxiety and Hymen and Warren's (1985) use of imagery combined with rational emotive therapy to lowered test anxiety. In the past, studies have used imagery primarily as a variation to some other paramount treatment. This study explored the use of imagery as the primary treatment. Therefore, the acceptance of the hypothesis, that imagery will lower student anxiety, lends support to the use of imagery as a specific independent variable.

In comparing the imagery only group to the imagery with relaxation group, the anxiety scores were statistically similar. Relaxation added to the imagery was no more effective than imagery alone. This finding was in contrast to Benson's studies (1975) on relaxation. While Benson found relaxation decreases anxiety both physiologically and psychologically, the effect is perhaps not cumulative. On the other hand, the lack of difference may have been created by the very short relaxation period that was used in this study. Only five minutes of relaxation was used in the audiotape. The length of many relaxation tapes are 20 to 45 minutes. It is very possible that the relaxation in this study was too short to be effective. Further research is needed to explore the length of the relaxation component.

The fact that the imagery only treatment was as effective as the imagery/relaxation treatment has implication for future research. Additional studies that allow the subjects to use the imagery while carrying out some other task, such as jogging or washing dishes, could be conducted. Since time is a major consideration in a study involving adult students with multiple roles. this change could be beneficial.

The third hypothesis related to test performance revealed no difference among the experimental groups on their nursing examination scores. The imagery used in the audiotape was very similar to the cognitive approach of Denney (1980) and Goldfried, Lineban, & Smith (1978). use of rational emotive therapy combined with imagery. These studies reported decreased test anxiety and increased test performance. The findings of this study do not corroborate the increase in test performance. The differences in the treatment groups' z-scores approached significance ($p = .0667$). It might be worthwhile to replicate the test performance portion of the study. Since the tests were teacher-made and the courses in which subjects were tested differed from university to university, it is very hard to draw conclusions for the test findings. These disadvantages were identified at the outset of the study, but it was decided to measure this dependent variable nevertheless. The testing of this hypothesis in one nursing program on one class receiving the same test would greatly strengthen the design.

Finally, this study was designed to provide an anxiety treatment which could be controlled by the student. Mancini's (1983) study looked at the effectiveness of a group seminar in lower student anxiety in a graduate nursing program. She reported that students in the experimental group attended the seminar sporadically. Attendance was down to 29% by final examination period.

It was the intent of this study to explore the usefulness of an intervention which could be controlled by the student. When dealing with adult students with severe time constrants, all interventions, requiring another time commitment, are in jeopardy. Attrition of the students in this imagery study was also high. However, those who persisted in listening to the tapes did have lower anxiety levels and by self-report experienced benefits from using the imagery tape.

One interesting finding was that the attrition in the control group was almost as high as in the treatment groups. Perhaps, asking the students to complete the inventory just prior to taking the exam, created too much stress. The researcher recommends the testing of student's anxiety be done at another time. Serial testing of anxiety during the semester could help in determining an appropriate time.

The importance of addressing the need to lower adult student anxiety is summarized by Garrett, Manuel, and Vincent (1976, p. 17), "the problems of nursing students' anxiety has changed little over time. Faculty in general have had little success in assisting students to cope with the stress of nursing education."

Many studies have described the presence of anxiety in nursing students. Moderate to severe anxiety limits the concentration and problem-solving abilities needed by nursing students in order to be successful in a nursing program. Learning to handle the stressors inherent in a nursing major could increase retention. With the present nursing shortage, the reducing enrollment of generic nursing students, and the time pressures of adult students, it is imperative that we retain in nursing all interested students who have the academic ability. Perhaps, imagery is one approach.

References

Ayres and J., Hopf, T. S. (1985). Visualization - A means of reducing speech anxiety. Communication Education, 34 (4), 318-323.

Benson, H. & Klipper, M. X. (1975). The relaxation response. New York: William Morrow.

Brown, Barbara B. (1975). New mind, new body. New York: Harper & Row.

Cohen, J. (1977). Statistical power analysis for behavioral sciences. New York: Academic Press.

Cross, P. K. (1979). Adults as learners: Increasing participation and facilitating learning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Denney, D.R., (1980). Self-control approaches to the treatment of test anxiety, In I.G. Sarason (Ed.), Test anxiety: Theory, research, and applications (pp. 209-243). Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Garrett, A., Manuel, D., & Vincent, C. (1976). Stressful experiences identified by student nurses. Journal of Nursing Education, 14, 9-21.

Goldfried, M.R. Linebun, M.M., & Smith, J. L. (1978). Reduction of test anxiety through cognitive restructuring. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 46, 32-39.

Havinghurst, R. J. (1952). Developmental tests and education. New York: David McKay.

Hymen, S. P., Warren, R. (1978). Evaluation of rational emotive imagery as a component of rational emotive therapy in the treatment of test anxiety. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 46 (3), 847-853.

Jung, C. (1964). On becoming a person. New York: Appleton-Croft.

Leedy, P. D. (1974). Practical Research: Planning and Design. New York: Macmillan.

Mancini, J., Lavecchina, C., Clegg, R. (1983). Graduate nursing students and stress. Journal of Nursing Education, 22 (8), 329-334.

Marienau, C., & Chichering, A. W. (1982). Adult development and learning. In B. Menson (Ed.). Building on experience of adult development: New directions for experimental learning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Neugarten, B. L. (1968). Middle age and aging: A reader in social psychology. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Pappas, J.P., Loring, R.K. (1985). Returning Learners. In U. Selworth and G. R. Hanson, (Ed.). Increasing student retention: Effective programs for reducing the dropout rate. 138-161.

Samuels, M., & Samuels, N. (1984). Seeing with a mind' eye: The history, techniques and uses of visualization. New York: Random House.

Singer, J. L. (1974). Imagery and daydreams: Methods in psychotherapy and behavior modification. New York: Academic Press.

Sobol, E. G. (1978). Self actualization and the baccalaureate nursing student's response to stress. Nursing Research, 27 (4), 238-244.

Speilberger, C. D., Gorsuch, R. E., Lushene, R. E. (1983). STAI Manual, Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Weissberg, M. (1977). Comparison of direct and vicarious control treatments of speech anxiety desensitization, desensitization with coping imagery, and cognitive modification. Behavior Therapy, 8 (4), 318-323.

Whitrock, M. C. (1977). The human brain. Englewood, Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice.

Social Science Orientations and Adult Education Aims in the Early Development of Adult Education in the U.S.

Harold W. Stubblefield*

The positivistic, interpretive, and critical approaches to the social sciences were used to analyze the social science orientations and adult education aims of Edward L. Thorndike, John Walker Powell, and Eduard C. Lindeman.

The Grounding of Adult Education in the Social Sciences

Among social and educational researchers, there are now "competing modes of research" (Bredo & Feinberg, 1982). The dominance of the positivistic tradition has been challenged by advocates of the interpretive and critical approach. Adult education researchers who paid attention to these developments at first sought to legitimize qualitative research methods, but others, principally Jack Mezirow, have attempted systematically to ground adult education theory and its aims in these differing views of the social sciences.

This present inquiry into the social science grounding of adult education is important and refreshing, but it is hardly new. When nation-wide activities on behalf of adult education began shortly after World War I, many social scientists joined with philosophers, educationists, civic leaders, and foundation executives to build the empirical, philosophical, and conceptual foundations of adult education. These theoretical architects of American adult education agreed on the importance of adult education but they differed about the aims of adult education. Underlying these differences about the aims were also different social science orientations (Stubblefield, 1988).

These differing aims and orientations are evident in the work of three of these architects: Edward L. Thorndike 1874-1949), John Walker Powell (1904-), and Eduard C. Lindeman (1885-1953). In this study, their positions are juxtaposed with the three social science orientations, Thorndike with positivistic science, Powell with interpretive science, and Lindeman with critical science. In imposing contemporary categorizations on persons in the past, one runs the risk of misinterpretation and of finding relationships where none may exist. Such possibility is hardly the case with Edward L. Thorndike whose commitment to positivistic science and its relationship to his social orientation is widely recognized (Clifford, 1984; Franklin, 1976). Comstock's (1982) description of the methods of critical research illuminates Lindeman's approach and provides criteria for viewing his work as critical research. John Walker Powell's work is important in itself, but when examined from the interpretive approach, his emphasis on communication as the central aim of adult education and the close relationship he drew between education and therapy take on new meaning.

---

* Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

The Positivistic Approach and Adult Education

When Frederick Keppel, President of the Carnegie Corporation, began to implement the Corporation's plan for adult education, it was not by accident that he turned in 1925 to Edward L. Thorndike of Teachers College, Columbia University, to conduct research supporting the psychological basis for adult education. Keppel and Thorndike had been colleagues at Columbia and remained close friends for the rest of their lives. Thorndike was by then one of America's leading psychologists and director of the division of psychology of the Institute of Educational Research.

As part of the Institute's research program, Thorndike and his colleagues conducted and published research on Adult Learning (1928) and Adult Interests (1935). With regard to method, Thorndike studied adult learning by measuring how long it took persons at different ages to memorize small units of information, and he studied adult interests through questionnaires that asked persons to indicate activities in which they had had an interest at different ages. Adults, he concluded, had both ability and interests to continue learning throughout their life.

His results galvanized adult educators and advocates of adult education, and for good reason. His research justified the Carnegie enterprise in adult education. In his words: "The provision of opportunities whereby adults can learn those things which they are able to learn and which is for the common good that they should learn is a safe philanthropy and a productive investment for the nation" (1928, p. 178).

Thorndike believed that this research warranted several policy decisions about adult education. What he advocated for adult education clearly came from his behavioristic psychology perspective and his psychology of social control. For one thing, he wanted to extend educational testing to adult education; he wanted better means of selection of persons who applied and more extensive evaluation of adult education programs and individual learning outcomes to identify what works in adult education and what does not.

More alarming was his prescription for distributing adult education: give large amounts of education to those who can best use it. Adults were neither equal in their ability to benefit from education nor equally deserving in character to receive it. Several practices violated Thorndike's principles. Increasing the amount of adult education distributed regardless of the ability of the persons who received it was a "beneficent undertaking" but a lesser good than giving it "to those who deserve it most and will use it best." A doctrine of equalization--giving the most education after 21 to those who had the least before--made no sense to Thorndike.

These forms of equalization paid no attention to interests, which he believed to be the best way to distribute adult education. Part-time adult education relied mainly on interests, and Thorndike believed this system, in general, has enabled those who want education the most to get it. Thorndike favored the present method: institutional providers controlled only the offerings and adults then exercised individual choice. But this type of control is potent, for what is offered appeals to only certain kinds of interests. Providers can appeal to certain kinds of interests but not to others.

Obviously, these views were not those of an objective, disinterested scientist. Thorndike's psychological theories were embedded within a specific social orientation which reflected the white, middle class interests (Franklin, 1976). Thorndike believed that low intelligence meant low character, and he believed that the alien ideas of immigrants threatened the dominance of middle class culture. Most persons were not generally knowledgeable but were narrow specialists and had particular skills. Society would be better served if these persons followed the leadership of experts. The primary function of education was to prepare the most intelligent for social leadership by developing their special abilities.

The Interpretive Approach and Adult Education

In 1927, a year before Thorndike published his research on adult learning, John Walker Powell joined the faculty of the newly organized Experimental College at the University of Wisconsin which had been founded and directed by Alexander Meiklejohn. After the College closed in 1932, Powell followed Meiklejohn to San Francisco to teach in an innovative adult education program, the San Francisco School of Social Studies, which World War II brought to a close. The School's basic format was the study group and the curriculum was important books on the social order, both classical and contemporary. Meiklejohn and Powell regarded books not as ends in themselves but as instruments of intelligence that showed people solving problems. They wanted to create in adults a "public intelligence" by the study of how thoughtful people had treated social problems. The group method was central, not incidental, to their purposes, because that method was most compatible with the democratic process.

On the surface, Meiklejohn's work in San Francisco appeared to be an experiment in liberal education for adults and an earlier form of the Great Books program of Hutchins and Adler. That perception is misleading. Meiklejohn had a social and economic agenda derived from his opposition to capitalism and his lifelong belief in cooperative ownerships. In the 1930s, to him the School of Social Studies provided the educational foundations for new ways of thinking about the American economy and political order.

In Powell's independent work after World War II, he addressed the central problem for adult education as how to assist adults in their many roles to find a center of integration. Adult educators only aggravated the situation by building their programs around abstracted functions or particular interests of adults. Powell found the center of integration in the vocation of citizenship and the central function of adult education to develop "intelligence." What kind of intelligence? And how was that intelligence to be created? Rational intelligence, Powell concluded, was a social product produced by a social process. In groups, the values, attitudes, and facts that adults controlled by their private feelings were examined in view of the group and cultural consensus on these matters.

In this group method, Powell (1949) had brought adult education close to therapy. He was aware of this, and to understand these dynamics, Powell turned to the branches of the social sciences and psychiatry that believed in the centrality of the interpersonal; he drew upon the writings of Mary Parker Follett, Kurt Lewin, gestalt psychology, and Freudian psychology represented by Harry Stack Sullivan and Erich Fromm.

More importantly, Powell submitted his ideas about the dynamics of adult reading groups to the test of empirical research by comparing the group processes in adult education, psychotherapy, and social work groups (Powell, 1952; Powell, Stone, & Frank, 1952). Each of these groups had generic similarities in that the objectives of each individual member could be achieved only through the activities of the group: the group was both a medium of, and a condition for, achieving the objectives. Groups differ in the extent to which they deal with relational content, and of the three types of groups adult education groups dealt less with relational content. Education and therapy were parts of a continuum and both were concerned about the learning process directed toward achieving maturity. Education aimed at mastery in handling judgments, in helping individuals learn how to examine what they think is important. Therapy aimed at mastery in handling feelings, in helping individuals examine how they feel about what they think is important.

The Critical Approach and Adult Education

In 1926 Eduard C. Lindeman's The Meaning of Adult Education was published to mixed reviews. Unlike Thorndike who sought to justify adult education on the basis of empirical observations, Lindeman sought to interpret a particular type of adult education and what that kind of adult education meant in American life. While his interpretation was not idiosyncratic, he, nevertheless, fashioned a unique but derivative conception of adult education from the progressivism of John Dewey, the Danish folk school experiment in adult education. and a particular approach to social science research.

As a social scientist, Lindeman wanted to use social science to advance knowledge about social life, and this meant studying persons in association, for only in functional groups did persons find significance and have influence. It meant not just studying the behavior of persons but also facilitating their actions. In what would later be called "action research," Lindeman tested principles of action in community organization, in managing collective behavior, and in social education. Scientific research could not easily be applied to achieve social goals. Those goals were achieved only through the participation of members and leaders and not by imposing predetermined ends externally upon persons. This required "qualitative" research methods in which both the researcher and the participants joined in the fact-finding process and used the facts to help participants clarify their purposes and to identify functions needed to achieve them.

In The Meaning of Adult Education Lindeman translated this social research approach into a social function for adult education: to help adults understand the nature of their collective life and to control the dominance of experts. Adult education directed toward this end required a method, which Lindeman found in discussion. In discussion, persons participated as total personalities. But Lindeman used discussion groups for particular purpose; the groups became occasions for adults to examine their interests, to test their ideas, to draw upon resources from printed materials and group members, and to plan for action in their life situation.

In several respects, this view of adult education carried Lindeman beyond the mainstream of American adult education. For one, Lindeman challenged adult educators to built the curriculum of adult education around the tensions that persons experienced in their social life. Even divisive areas as racial understanding came within the purview of adult education. Integrating blacks into American life and culture should be the goal of education for racial understanding. Integration would not be easily nor quickly achieved, only after several intermediate goals had been attained.

Second, Lindeman believed that adult education was a social phenomenon and thus should be studied by sociological research and not just by educational research. Whenever adult education appeared in a culture, new social forms appeared; the folk school in Denmark and parent education in the United States were two examples. These were efforts to reduce the "cultural lag," and the extent to which they succeeded should be evaluated.

Finally, social change depended on developing individuals who learned throughout life but not through book learning. Only those persons who were evolving the "social self" through education as a process of growth from within contributed to social progress. They sought knowledge about themselves through interaction with others, experimented with new behavior, acted upon their thinking, and subjected their behavior to self-criticism. In each new situation, then, such persons rediscovered their values and envisioned new possibilities.

Conclusions

Thorndike, Powell, and Lindeman were all part of a larger effort for adult education, but their understandings of what adult education should be about does not indicate it. In many respects, their differences were deep and unreconcilable, but understandable in light of their social orientation. Several useful purposes are served when we analyze our theory and practice of adult education in the context of these three approaches to social science research. One purpose will be to be deepen the intellectual content in the debates about the aims of adult education. Another will be to have categories to identify and interpret case studies of both past and present practices and to ground them in a particular social reality. By so doing, we begin to identify the "traditions" of adult education, and these in turn will serve as guides to study the past and to develop more adequate theories of practice for the future.

References

Bredo, E., & Feinberg, W. (1982). Knowledge & values in social and educational research. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Clifford, G. J. (1984). Edward L. Thorndike: The sane positivist. Middletown, CT: Wesleyan University Press.

Comstock, E. (1982). In E. Bredo & W. Feinberg (Eds.). A method for critical research. Knowledge & values in social and educational research (pp. 370-90). Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Franklin, B. M. (1976). Curriculum thought and social meaning: Edward L. Thorndike and the curriculum field. Educational Theory. 26, 298-309.

Lindeman, E. C. (1961). The meaning of adult education. Montreal: Harvest House. (original publication 1926)

Powell, J. W. (1949). Education for maturity. New York: Hermitage House.

Powell, J. W. (1952). Process analysis as content: A suggested basis for group classification. Journal of Social Issues, 8, 54-64.

Powell, J. W., Stone, A. R., & Frank, J. D. (1952). Group reading and group therapy: A concurrent test. Psychiatry, 15, 33-51.

Stubblefield, H. W. (1988). Towards a history of adult education in America. London: Croom Helm.

Thorndike, E. L. (1928). Adult learning. New York: Macmillan.

Thorndike, E. L. (1935). Adult interests. New York: Macmillan.

The Annenberg/CPB Project's Support of Distance Education Research

Patricia Akiko Takemoto
University of Wisconsin-Extension

Abstract

The Annenberg/Corporation for Public Broadcasting Project, established in 1981, has greatly influenced the field of American distance education, both with its production of course materials as well as its commissioned research. This presentation provides an overview of 20 of its research studies, as of Spring 1988.

The establishment of the Annenberg/CPB Project in 1981, greatly boosted the field of higher education distance learning in the United States. Through a generous gift of $150 million from Ambassador Walter Annenberg, universities, community colleges, television and radio production studios, and other educational consortia had access to funds to create and to produce innovative, academically-rigorous course materials, and to explore new applications of telecommunications technologies to enhance the availability of higher education opportunities to non-traditional students. The funds are allocated at the rate of $10 million annually for 15 years, channeled through the Corporation for Public Broadcasting, a non-profit telecommunications corporation established by the U.S. Congress to oversee the public funding of educational television and radio programs and operations.

Now in its seventh year in its funding period, the A/CPB Project has supported the production of 14 outstanding video (including tv), 16 audio (including radio), and a number of demonstration projects using video discs, computers, and data networks to test innovative ways to apply newly-developing technologies to the teaching and learning process. An important ancillary arm of the Project has been its research department, which commissions studies in five areas of distance education research.

1. Formative Evaluation Research

Formative evaluation is conducted at the pilot stage of course production, for the purposes of determining the educational effectiveness of the materials, of providing early peer review and feedback for the design and development team, and of giving the A/CPB Project an early key (sometimes warning) to the progress of the production.

A. Audio-Print Curriculum Formative Evaluation Studies, Nine separate course evaluation studies have been completed (to date) by Research Communications, Ltd. (RCL); by Dr. John Fiss; and by Dr. Michael Moore; overseen by Dr. Patricia Takemoto, Research Director.

Purpose: To provide the course teams with feedback on the effectiveness of a pilot unit's materials (audio program, study guide/anthology, and textbook).

Methodology: Telephone and focus group interviews, written questionnaires with a sample group of 50-80 students, 25-35 faculty, and 20-30 administrators, per study.

Findings: Reports to the course teams focused on whether the unit's objectives were achieved by the course materials, the pedagogical strengths and weaknesses of the materials, and recommendations for improvement of the pilot materials.

B. Formative Evaluation Studies of other A/CPB courses. Findings are considered confidential, and pertinent only to the course team.

C. Formative Research for The A/CPB Project, prepared by RCL, 1984.

Purpose: A report to various A/CPB Project directors, to familiarize them with the formative evaluation process.

Methodology: Review of evaluation literature, and RCL's past studies.

Findings: Three issues were addressed:

1. How can projects foster receptivity to formative research? Through involvement and an understanding of the purposes of such studies.
2. What kinds of questions can formative research address? While each study is customized to the particular course and medium, the instructional potential of the course and the student's reaction to the materials are of primary concern.
3. What evidence is there that the information is valid? An overview of research methology that assures validity.

D. A Study of Formative Research of the A/CPB Project: The First Five Years, prepared by RCL, 1985.

Purpose: To provide an overview of the types of formative research utilized in the first ten A/CPB video courses.

Methodology: Interviews with project directors and evaluators, and reviews of research findings themselves.

Findings: Overview addressed the purpose of formative research, the variety of research designs, research methology, and A/CPB research guidelines.

2. Utilization Studies

Because mediated distance education at the college level is a relatively new phenomenon in the U.S., studies were commissioned to determine the demographics of telecourse* students, to understand the needs of the educational market, to trace patterns of use of current mediated courses, and to assess faculty and administrator reaction to such courses.

A. A Study of Telecourse Students, conducted by Brey and Grigsby, 1984.

Purpose: To determine the demographics of current telecourse students, and the reasons they enroll in telecourses.

Methodology: Questionnaire survey of 8,000 students enrolled in 42 telecourses at colleges across the U.S.

Findings: 66% of students were female, married, with dependents at home; 75% were older than 23 years of age; 66% were enrolled simultaneously with on-campus courses; 80% were employed, over half employed full-time; 80% were using the telecourses to accelerate their education; 40% enrolled because the on-campus course conflicted with their schedules; and 40% enrolled for 10 or more credit hours.

(This study is currently being updated.)

B. Research on Student Uses of A/CPB Telecourses in the Fall 1984, conducted by RCL, 1985.

Purpose: To examine student response to five A/CPB videocourses.

Methodology: Focus group interviews and written questionnaires completed with 200 students enrolled in A/CPB videocourses at 26 institutions (2-and 4-year schools).

*"Telecourse" is used to refer to complex, highly-diversified multi-media educational packages. Unfortunately, it implies that the media carries the instructional burden of the course, which is not usually the case.

Findings:

1. Factors which influenced the student's decision to take and/or to drop the course: minimized travel to and from campus although 60% of students lived within 1/2 hour of campus (the typical telecourse student is a distant learner, but not an isolated one); 60% enrolled to earn college credit towards a degree.

2. Students' use of the course materials: 40% owned VCR's; most preferred viewing on weekends; 50% took notes while viewing; 60% read print materials prior to viewing; greatest challenge was scheduling viewing and study time since they worked and had family responsibilities.

3. Effectiveness of materials: all course elements (tv programs, text and study guide) were rated highly effective, informative, and helpful; students were satisfied with the materials.

4 How did the A/CPB course compare to others: materials were more difficult than other telecourses; tuition, amount of study time, and grades were comparable.

(This study is currently being updated.)

C. A Study of Drop Out Students from the A/CPB Telecourses in the Fall of 1984, conducted by RCL, 1985.

Purpose: To determine reasons students dropped A/CPB telecourses.

Methodology: Telephone interviews conducted with 100 students from 12 institutions who dropped out of A/CPB telecourses.

Findings: Student demographics and reasons for dropping were:

1. Academic background: comparable to students who did not drop out;
2. Assessment of telecourses: comparable to other courses;
3. Reason for dropping the course fell into 6 categories:

a. course-related
b. personal reason
c. scheduling conflicts
d. lack of time
e. missed interaction with others
f. other: poor tv reception; transportation

D. Student Uses of Correspondence Courses and A Comparison with Uses of Telecourses, conducted by RCL, 1985.

Purpose: To determine how students use correspondence courses and how they compare their experiences to those of telecourse students.

Methodology: Telephone interviews and focus groups meetings with 100 students at 10 national sites.

Findings: Similarities existed between the two groups in areas of student career and educational aspirations, course experiences, study habits, learning problems encountered, and amount of learning achieved. Differences existed in students' reasons for selecting course, completion and drop-out rate, course load, amount of contact with instructor, difficulty of material, grade performance, and satisfaction with course.

E. Faculty Perceptions on the Role of Information Technologies in Academic Instruction, conducted by Lewis, 1985.

Purpose: To assess the extent and ways faculty think that electronic technologies may help to solve instructional problems.

Methodology: Questionnaire response and comments of 254 college faculty participating in 26 focus groups.

Findings: Faculty viewed instructional potential of technology favorably, but were critical of the software materials. Cited lack of funds, hardware, training, evaluative software information, and insufficient incentives and awards as reasons they did not use technology.

F. An Examination of Potential Markets for An Integrated Audio/Print Curriculum, conducted by RCL, 1985.

Purpose: To explore the educational marketing potential of 40 audio/print courses with colleges and correspondence students.

Methodology: Questionnaire and focus group interviews with 102 faculty and 100 students at 12 national sites.

Findings: Faculty interest, especially among 2-year institutions was high because of the breadth of the curriculum, the variety of ways the materials could enhance instruction, and the potential to attract the non-traditional student. Faculty resistance was highest at institutions which did not have much experience with distance education. Students liked the curriculum's breadth, the self-pacing aspect of the material, and the way the audio reinforced learning. Students preferred the correspondence approach because it was not tied to a semester schedule.

G. Faculty and Administrator Use of A/CPB Project Video Courses, conducted by Blackburn and Ging, 1986.

Purpose: To assess the extent to which 5 A/CPB telecourses have been used as credit-bearing courses, and to determine factors which influenced a school's decision to adopt the courses.

Methodology: Survey of responses from 347 faculty and 167 administrators, both adopters and non-adopters.

Findings: Factors which affected adoption were the quality of content, technical quality of materials, appropriateness of difficulty level, curricular compatibility, and institutional fit. Administrators considered cost, lead-time for implementing the course, credibility of the source of information, potential for increasing enrollment and presence of institutional support as critical. Schools with previous successful experience in innovation were more positive to videocourses.

H. Instructional Technology in Higher Education: A National Study of the Educational Uses of Telecommunications Technology in American Colleges and Universities, conducted by Riccobono, 1986.

Purpose: To explore the availability, use, and support of video, audio, and computer technology at American colleges and universities.

Methodology: Census survey of eligible public and private 2-and 4-year higher educational institutions, with 2,830 schools responding.

Findings: More public sector schools had hardware than did private schools, especially computers; video and audio were used more in introductory and lower-level instruction, with one-way presentations being the most common method of dissemination over cable systems; 66% expected an increased use of on-campus technolgies in the future.

3. Qualitative Assessments of Telecourses

A major concern of the A/CPB Project is to develop courses that compare favorably in academic rigor and educational effectiveness with traditional campus courses. While it is acknowledged that media may enhance educational materials, many faculty still have grave reservations about the distance education process, and feel that the lack of face-to-face classroom interaction between teachers and students negatively affects the quality of teaching and learning.

A. Evaluating Student Outcomes from Telecourse Instruction, conducted by Shavelson et al, 1986.

Purpose: To determine the feasibility of conducting research which proves that telecourses gave an educational advantage, and that the learning outcomes are "exchangeable" with traditional courses.

Methodology: Two video courses were evaluated at 8 sites with 150 students, using pre-and post-tests, questionnaires, interviews and on-site observations.

Findings: Study was inconclusive because there were too few controls. Researchers concluded that it would be feasible to conduct valid research only under the optimum conditions of having a sufficient number of sites, extensive lead-time, mandatory pretesting, on-site data gathering and observation by trained researchers, and participants willing to adhere to all evaluation procedures.

B. **Evaluation of Audio Augmentation of College-Level Correspondence Courses**, conducted by The Center for the Study of Testing, Evaluation and Educational Policy, 1986.

Purpose: To determine if audio materials added value to traditional correspondence courses by enhancing enrollment, broadening access to course study, increasing achievement, and favorably influencing student and faculty attitudes.

Methodology: Nine colleges (2-and 4-year) assessed 3 audiocourses against traditional correspondence courses in the same subject area. Questionnaire responses from administrators, faculty and students.

Findings: Results were inconclusive on the first three points because of design and time limitations. Students' attitudes toward the materials was positive, i.e., audio programs were interesting, stimulating, enabled students to maintain interest in the course, and helped them overcome a sense of isolation as an external student. Faculty and administrators felt audio provided useful supplementary information and raised thought-provoking questions.

4. Demonstration Project Research

The Project has funded innovative research experiments with newly developing technology to counter the common phenomenon of hardware design outpacing the development of course material and pedagogical methodology.

A. **Telecourse Enhancement through Electronic Mail**, conducted by the Open University of the University of South Florida, 1987.

Purpose: To assess whether electronic mail would enhance a telecourse and help to overcome student isolation.

Methodology: In a 3-semester study, students enrolled in a telecourse were provided with computers and modems with which they received enrichment exercises and other course information, while a control group received no additional course instruction.

Findings: No significant difference in achievement were found because students felt that the enhancement work was "busy work" not relevant to the course. Faculty were not specially trained or rewarded, so they perceived the study to be an additional work load burden.

B. **Master Teacher Television Courses**, conducted by WGBH-TV (Boston), ongoing study.

Purpose: To test the feasibility of producing low-cost, high-quality telecourses using dynamic "master teachers" and a variety of inexpensive video techniques.

Methodology: Experimenting with using the visual medium to cross-reference, emphasize, alter speed and perspective, magnify and illustrate course material.

C. **Networks of Scholars' Workstations in a University Community**, conducted by the Institute for Research in Information and Scholarship at Brown University, ongoing study.

Purpose: To explore ways that a computer workstation can help the student visualize dynamic and abstract concepts.

Methodology: Creating prototypes of software to be used as multipurpose educational tools in the arts, humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences.

D. Project Athena: The Next Generation of Language Laboratory Materials conducted by Massachusetts Institute of Technology, ongoing study.

Purpose: To apply techniques of artificial intelligence, videodisc, and interactive audio technology to expand the teaching and learning of foreign languages.

Methodology: A campus-wide experiment to develop four semesters of computer-based exercises for teaching German, Spanish, French, Russian, and English as a Second Language.

5. Strategic Planning

Strategic planning to determine where the field of distance education is heading, to identify developing trends, and to formulate ways the A/CPB Project can have an effective educational impact.

A. Market Study for Integrated Audio/Print Curriculum to Organizations and Associations, conducted by RCL, 1985.

Purpose: To explore the market potential of 40 audio-print courses to the informal, non-credit adult learner.

Methodology: Questionnaire and telephone interviews with 36 educational directors of associations and organizations other than educational institutions.

Findings: All expressed interest in the audio format (tape not radio), indicating great potential in this non-credit market.

B. Statewide Planning for Telecommunications in Education, conducted by Hezel, 1987.

Purpose: To provide an overview of the variety of official state-wide coordinating telecommunications planning groups.

Methodology: Questionnaire to all state Departments of Education.

Findings: Planning groups range from public broadcasting boards or commissions, state administrative agencies which serve other agencies, state departments of education or higher education, individual higher education institutions which try to provide coherent systems of educational telecommunications, and interstate consortia are forming which transcend state boundaries.

C. Model Sites: Dissemination, Utlization, and Assessment Project, conducted by Educational Testing Services, study ongoing.

Purpose: To document the process of implementing A/CPB courses on campus, the patterns of use, the factors likely to stimulate course adoption, and student use patterns.

Methodology: All A/CPB courses were made available free of charge to five educational consortia across the U.S., and semesterly reports are sent to ETS for analysis.

It is interesting to note the predominance of research in the area of Utilization, deemed necessary because little was known about the needs, current status, and receptivity of the U.S. educational market to mediated instruction when the A/CPB Project was established. As telecourses become a more common part of the curriculum in higher education, one would expect that the focus of future studies would be more evenly balanced. However, needless to say, these studies commissioned by the A/CPB Project have caused a resurgence in distance education research in the U.S. today, broadening and enriching the field considerably.

The Clearing: A Danish Folk School for the New World

Patricia Akiko Takemoto
University of Wisconsin-Extension

Abstract

This presentation documents the historical development of The Clearing, an American educational institution originally based on Danish Folk School traditions. By incorporating aspects of American populism, educational progressivism, and study of liberal arts, The Clearing has grown from a simple school to nature to one that now serves thousands of adult students each year.

The Clearing

Near the tip of Wisconsin's wooded Door County Peninsula, surrounded by the waters of Green Bay and Lake Michigan, thrives The Clearing, a private, independent adult folk school of nature, the humanities, and the arts. Established in 1935 by Jens Jensen, a Danish-born landscape architect, The Clearing has over the span of half a century provided more than 10,000 adults with opportunities to explore the natural environment and wildlife, to study folk crafts, fine arts, literature and languages, to ponder political and philosophical issues, and to foster one's own relationship with nature. Like many adult education endeavors, it is a small and independent institution not well known in the annals of adult education research. Yet the story of this school is a complex one interweaving some seemingly incongruous forces: a charismatic, forward-thinking, naturalist philosopher; a curriculum that interwove the Danish Folk School traditions with American tenets of educational progressivism, Jeffersonian democracy, and environmental studies; a grass roots support system of an enlightened agrarian organization and liberal arts colleges; and tradition of astute business management and leadership.

Jens Jensen was born in 1860 in the Schleswig province of Jutland, Denmark, just at a time and place when the historical circumstances in Danish history would indelibly and profoundly shape his later views of education. At the time of his birth, the Danish economy was faltering from their defeats in the Napoleonic Wars, and Prussian Chancellor Bismark took advantage of this weakness by invading Denmark in 1864 and claiming the provinces of Schleswig and Holstein for Germany. In an intense campaign of cultural indoctrination, all Jutlanders became German nationals and their children were forced to attend German schools. The loss of Jutland crushed Danish national pride, but also gave rise to an educational-political-agricultural movement that would become a characteristic symbol of national unity--the Danish Folk School.

Bishop Nicolai J. S. Grundtvig, called the "Prophet of the North," recognized Denmark's need for cultural and spiritual uplifting, and had begun in the 1840's formulating an educational philosophy which celebrated peasant life, Denmark's national history, Nordic literature, and the native language. He felt that education should arouse a desire for an understanding of life, and instill personal dedication to build a better nation. Rather than reading "dead" books in Latin and German, he favored lectures and discussion in Danish, using the "living word" to establish the spiritual and intellectual connections between teachers and students. He advocated education for the common man, and felt that Danish spirit would be revived with knowledge and pride in a national history, a native tongue, and a strong folk heritage.

Many families, including the Jensens, believed Grundtvig's words and felt that the future of Denmark lay in the liberally-educated farmer-patriot. In 1878, Jensen attended a folk school in Vinding, whose innovative and flexible curriculum stressed a liberal arts program of world and national history, politics, literature, Nordic mythology, and music. There were no exams nor diplomas, for this was "education for life," not preparation for a professional career. He next attended Tune Agricultural school from 1879 to 1880, where he studied botany, chemistry, soil analysis, drafting, and other scientific techniques designed to train small, free-hold farmers to play a vital role in the revival of the Danish economy. Both schools were small, accommodating 50-60 students for a term, and it was the optimal size for encouraging independent participation, and a sense of communal identity.

When Jensen set about establishing The Clearing in 1935, it had already been 55 years since his days at the Danish Folk Schools. In the meantime, he had emigrated in 1884 to the United States, where he distinguished himself as a successful Chicago landscape architect and prominent civic leader. He played a significant role in the Chicago "Renaissance" movement at the turn of the 20th century, when artists, writers, poets, architects, educators, journalists, landscape architects, and others, gave that city a sense of creative vitality and national prominence. He belonged to many artistic, scientific, and cultural organizations, and among his intellectual friends or professional colleagues were poets Carl Sandburg and Vachel Lindsay, architects Frank Lloyd Wright and Louis Sullivan, educators John Dewey and Francis Parker, artist Lorado Taft, playwright Kenneth Goodman, and social worker Jane Addams. Jensen was an urban, sohphisticated, successful civic leader, well-acquainted with the major proponents of contemporary education, social reform, artistic innovation, and environmental preservation. Thus, his decision to model The Clearing in the Danish Folk School tradition takes on a greater significance because he was fully aware of many other educational programs, philosophies and practices.

The Clearing incorporated the following Danish Folk School traditions:

1) It was a residential school accommodating about 20 students at one time. The dormitories, lounge and dining rooms were built of logs or of native limestone from the region;

2) It was located on 120 acres of woods along the shore of Green Bay, and provided students with a setting of great natural beauty;

3) Students were young adults, not children;

4) Class size was small to encourage great interaction, individual instruction, and independent thinking;

5. Teaching was done by the "living word"--conversation, debate, and discussion--not books;

6) The curriculum emphasized physical activity, the study of local history and literature, native arts and crafts;

7) Teachers were selected based on their life experiences, skills, and knowledge, not their formal education or degrees;

8) Jensen's teachings advocated a respect for nature, the land, and love of the soil;

9) The underlying educational philosophy of The Clearing was that education should develop the inner self and foster moral character, civic pride, and a democratic spirit;

10) Jensen served as the Master Teacher of the school.

There have been a few other attempts to establish and sustain institutions in America following the traditional Danish Folk School model. But most have failed because those programs were based on perpetuating Danish language and culture for the children of Danish immigrants. Mortensen (1976) concluded that such a curriculum was too ethnocentric; the children valued the homogenous culture of American society over their Danish heritage.

Instead, "A folk college by definition should grow from the needs and conditions of the culture in which it exists," wrote Parke (1964) who cited the John C. Campbell School, established in 1928 in Brasstown, North Carolina, and the Highlander Folk School, established in 1932 in Summerfield, Tennessee, as American institutions that have successfully adapted the Danish folk school model into their efforts to resolve social, economic, and cultural problems of the Southern Appalachian Mountain region of the U.S.

Unlike the Campbell and Highlander Schools, The Clearing did not base its primary purpose on social and economic reform, although like Jane Addams, Jensen did believe that education should be a tool to improve the conditions of society. Jensen adopted the Grundtvigian curriculum of practical knowledge of nature and the soil, broad liberal education for responsible citizenship, and the transmission of one's culture through the oral tradition and the study of native crafts and folklore. (For Jensen, the native culture of Wisconsin included the philosophy and art of the American Indians of the Upper Midwestern region of the U.S.) From the American progressive education movement of John Dewey and Francis Parker, Jensen adopted the philosophy that individualized student-centered instruction with self-determined goals and assessments was the appropriate approach for the adult student.

Jensen's work with The Clearing, his public works designing parks in many Wisconsin communities, and his lectures and writings about environmental preservation attracted the admiration of naturalists and educators, and in 1937, he received an honorary doctorate from the University of Wisconsin. After Jensen's death in 1951, various faculty from liberal arts colleges and universities in the Midwest region, including those from the University of Chicago, the University of Wisconsin, the Illinois Institute of Technology, and Lawrence College, helped to create a liberal arts curriculum to replace the Master Teacher model that Jensen had established. Inspired by the University of Chicago's Basic Studies Program and the Great Books Study Groups, it emphasized the study of the classics of western civilization to train adults to become clearer thinkers, better decision-makers, and enlightened and liberated citizens of a global society. The Clearing's new programs were taught by a group of bright, young faculty, attracting adult students who wanted to combine intellectual study, camaraderie, and a beautiful natural setting.

This high quality of instruction assured educational credibility, but not financial stability. In their desperate search for a benevolent "patron," The Clearing affiliated in 1953 with the Wisconsin Farm Bureau Federation, an agricultural organization with long ties to the American Populist movement and to rural adult education activities. The leaders of the Farm Bureau understood Jensen's reverence for the soil, and were interested in such a setting for their fledgling educational programs for rural youth, farm wives, and young farm couples. Both Jensen and the Wisconsin Farm Bureau Federation believed that educational opportunities should be accessible to all people, that a school's responsibility was to make its research and information widely and easily available. They also shared the belief that education liberated the mind from such constraints as ignorance, geographic isolation, and poverty, and that the field of agriculture was a noble profession. The Farm Bureau provided administrative help, and economic and physical support to enlarge and to renovate the campus, enabling The Clearing to become the beneficiary of this unique blending of educational and agricultural traditions.

Thus we can see, by tracing the historical growth of The Clearing, how it adapted and grew from the needs and conditions of its culture. It was the Danish Folk School model that kept The Clearing's leaders flexible, sensitive to the times, and open to change. The Clearing's underlying structure of a residential communal school offering both physical and mental activity, of an examination and grade-free curriculum for adult students, of the selection of teachers according to their knowledge, of a reverence for nature, and of courses that developed independent thinkers and concerned citizens, owned its existence to Jensen's experiences at the Danish Folk and Agricultural Schools.

Also present in The Clearing's philosophy were Jensen's own contributions as a naturalist and landscape artist. Just as Jensen's prairie landscape designs glorified the local and indigenous plant and land formations, so The Clearing was his distinctly American creation. Jensen designed The Clearing to be his "prairie" school--an institution combining various European and American educational traditions, interpreted through his own artistic and pedagogical philosophy. This was the key to the uniqueness of The Clearing from other residential folk schools in the United States. And like other folk schools founded or led by a dynamic and charismatic leader, The Clearing became the ideological expression of Jens Jensen, the Danish-American.

Notes

Mortensen, E. (1976) A Futuristic Look at the Nordic Folk High School. Teacher's College Record, 77 (4), 495-504.

Parke, K. E. (1964). Centennial of Norway's People's Colleges: Their Purposes Recall the Ideas Present so Ardently in the Early Days of the Junior Movement. Junior College Journal, 35 (3), 9-11.

EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE FOR ADULTS IN THE UK: DEVELOPMENTS THROUGH THE 1980s

By John Taylor
Liaison Manager, Educational Counselling
& Credit Transfer Information Service,
Open University, Walton Hall, Milton Keynes MK7 6DB.

Abstract. This paper surveys the recent growth of educational guidance facilities for adults in the UK from the publication in 1979 of 'Links to Learning' and the DES Report on 'Educational Credit Transfer'. Both reports advocated extensive developments. The former looked to locally based guidance services; the latter to national computer-based systems. Local services have since multiplied. Computerisation has become widespread. The emphasis has been on extending the quantity of provision, now it moves towards the improvement of quality. The paper concludes that adult guidance provision is now established, reflects on its future, and considers the contribution made by British universities.

Origins. In the early '70s the Russell Report argued that "provision ,however good, is pointless unless it is known to those for whom it is designed", and went on to suggest this could be put right by "the provision of information to the individual enquirer" in order "to identify and locate the most suitable activity for his (sic) educational needs". The Report nevertheless came to a negative conclusion that since "a true counselling service...would be a costly and elaborate undertaking" it "could not recommend the diversion of resources in that direction at the present time".(1) Events quickly overtook Russell's caution as recognisably distinct guidance provision for adults began to emerge in the second half of the 1970s. Some initiatives stemmed from adult education, others came from further and higher education and from established information channels such as public libraries and the careers services.

Early Focus. The Open University's Venables Report, published in 1976, called for a local, multi-institutional approach to providing educational guidance services for adults (EGSAs).(2) Since then the OU, largely through its regional offices, has made a significant contribution to the setting up and survival of many EGSAs. The OU has been credited as a prime mover in persuading adult educators of the value of guidance provision.(3) The Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education (ACACE) published, in 1979, the first UK report to review and analyse the development of EGSAs. 'Links to Learning' was unequivocal in insisting that EGSAs "should be recognised as the crucial link between the educational needs and demands of adults and the learning opportunities offered by educational providers". The report advocated guidance as a two-way process - helping adults towards learning as well as feeding back information about unmet student demand to educational institutions. A further recommendation called for guaranteed financial support, with acceptance of responsibity by local education authorities, while at the same time insisting that EGSAs should be "co-operative and collaborative ventures rather than the exclusive preserve of any one professional group or institution".(4) The Unit for the Development of Adult Continuing Education (UDACE),set up in 1985, has given such energetic attention to this field that it can now claim dominance in any list of UK publications about educational guidance . It is also noticeable that over the past couple of years every report on post-school education has included references to the need for, and value of, educational guidance for adults. Surely an idea whose time really has come.

Credit Transfer. While educational guidance was gathering momentum, there was growing concern about the restriction placed on adult access to higher education by entry requirements geared to conventional school-leaving qualifications. This led to a perception of human and economic wastage, which might be reduced if institutions would offer 'credit transfer' opportunities based on prior experience and learning, in place of the normal entry and course progression requirements. The Department of Education and Science commissioned an independent report on the current availability of credit transfer and the potential for its expansion. The Toyne Report, published in 1979, argued from the value of the limited amount of credit transfer then available that much more should be provided. The key to this was seen to be a national computer-based information service about what credit transfer opportunities were available where, on what terms, to whom, and for what.(5) The DES accepted this and, in setting up a national information centre, added the function of providing information about what courses were available where and in what subjects and skills. Thus the Educational Counselling and Credit Transfer Information Service (ECCTIS), born in 1983, was both the first DES funded project in the guidance field and the first substantial attempt at computerised support for educational information services. In that same year the DES launched the PICKUP computer-based Training Directory and the Manpower Services Commission sponsored MARIS (Materials and Resources Information Service) as an open learning database.

EGSAs. Alongside these national developments in the early '80s came a steady rise in the number of local EGSAs. Most were poorly resourced, slenderly staffed and largely voluntary exercises. Some did not long survive, and yet their numbers grew year by year. The first systematic attempt to survey them came up with 15 operational and three planned.(4) Since then an annual 'Directory of EGSAs' has been published, from which the figures in Table 1 have been calculated.(6)

Table 1 Number of EGSAs operating and planned in the UK.

Year	Total	England	Wales	Scotland	N.Ireland
'79	18	17	0	0	1
'83	49	41	3	3	2
'84	53	47	2	2	2
'85	66	58	2	4	2
'86	78	72	2	3	1
'87	85	80	1	3	1

In view of all the constraints over the past few straightened years, the growth recorded in Table 1 is remarkable. However that growth has essentially been an English phenomenon. Scotland has just about held its own (in 1988 it is down to two EGSAs). Wales has seen a steady decline. In Northern Ireland, in spite of officialdom's pursuit of economy in seeking to close it, the Belfast EGSA, the first to be established in the UK, has survived and celebrated its 21st birthday last year.

Meanings. The definition of an EGSA is enshrined in the institutional membership criteria of the National Association of Educational Guidance Services for Adults (NAEGS). These have been described as being associated with "the linked values of improved access, collaborative provision, independence, client-centredness and advocacy".(7) The '1986 Directory of EGSAs' listed the criteria for inclusion in its pages - the offering of educational guidance independently of the interests of any supporting agency, as a primary function, for the general public, across the whole of continuing education, free of charge, and in most of its elements of information, assessment, advice, counselling and implementation.(8) That list of guidance functions has been amplified by UDACE to cover seven inter-related functions: informing, advising, counselling, assessing, enabling, advocating, and feeding back.(9)

Other Services. While EGSAs rightly see themselves as the specialist centres for adult educational guidance, there have long been other public services which respond to educational enquiries from adults, notably the public libraries and the local authority careers services. The British Library's Research and Development Department co-operated with the Open University's Yorkshire Region and ACACE in research which led to a number of reports. Some public libraries work closely, often as collaborative member institutions, with their local EGSA. Careers services are established to assist young people, they are not required to offer services to adults. While some are keen to help adults, they are often reluctant to stretch scarce resources to a new and potentially large clientele. The Institute of Careers Officers regularly surveys careers services about their policies in regard to adult enquirers, and promotes conferences on the subject. Some careers services look askance at their neighbouring EGSA, others co-operate. The big newcomer on the adult guidance scene is the Manpower Services Commission and its TAPs (Training Access Points) scheme. This multi-million pound project aims at a country-wide network of local enquiry centres, each of which will be supported by computerised local databases linked to national databases, such as ECCTIS and PICKUP. Its starting point of guidance in vocational education and training is being interpreted broadly to include the whole of adult, further and higher education.

Information Technology. There is a vast amount of education and training on offer. To compile, store, maintain and make data instantly available to enquirers calls for investment in the latest computer systems. The national databases have led the way with on-line mainframe systems. ECCTIS has recently made its entire database (of over 50,000 further and higher education courses) available on a single compact disc (CD-ROM). To date the investment required has limited developments to the national level. Now TAPs is addressing the computerisation of local databases. UDACE has encouraged the same line of exploration in its latest report.(12) Progress in the more effective provision of information services is undoubtedly linked to the new technology. But how quickly will educationalists and adults in general come to terms with computers as information channels? The TAP Unit has currently commissioned studies on this in relation to simplified 'user systems' and public acceptance.

User Needs and Demands. Student dissatisfaction and drop-out rates are measures of the lack of guidance for those who have actually got into the system. Most adults have never got that far. Widely available and well publicised guidance facilities could help change that and transform need into demand. The actual demand for educational guidance is not easily measured. A recent study concluded that "many adults are unclear about what guidance is available and where to find it (and) the problem is compounded by the fact that guidance agencies are, in general, difficult to find. They are located in inaccessible places, and poorly publicised" (11) Arithmetically more precise is the evidence from the ECCTIS on-line database search service which received 18,000 enquiries in 1985, over 40,000 in 1986, and 110,000 in 1987. Thus latent demand emerges when facilities become available. Just as encouragingly the recent UDACE study shows that 30% of the adult population "has sought some form of guidance about training or education in the past".(11)

User Satisfaction. The problem with measuring satisfaction is knowing what to regard as 'success' in guidance terms. To measure effectiveness by the take-up of recommended study courses might be seen as too recruitment-oriented. A research study of four EGSAs criticised the EGSAs' performance after a follow-up of their users revealed that some went on to "resolve their own information needs...without further recourse to the EGSA", "advice was sometimes inappropriate and irrelevant", and "counselling seemed hardly to reach those clients who were in need of it".(7) Brighter results can be found in a UDACE study: "few users express dissatisfaction with the guidance received, most expect to act on it and would return to the same agency in future".(11)

Current Issues. Areas to which attention is now being directed include: organisational structures, funding, accessibility, staffing and staff development, and information management. The UDACE proposals for developing educational guidance advocate local collaborative structures with the local education authority playing a "key role" to help ensure continuity of funding, while independence is maintained in the shape of a local education guidance unit, involving one or more from among at least the local EGSA, careers service and public library. Information management is coming to the fore as services attempt to be comprehensive in their coverage of learning opportunities; the ubiquitous UDACE has tackled this in a very recent report.(12) A National Unit for Educational Guidance has just come into existence, incorporated within UDACE, with joint funding from the DES and the MSC. It will soon begin its advisory and developmental work, aimed initially towards management, organisational and staff development.

Future. The future appears to be reasonably assured. Both the MSC and the DES continue to show interest backed by financial commitment. Whether EGSAs continue to grow and multiply could well hinge on more local education authority support, helping to assure funding for the local unit and network arrangements proposed by UDACE. Greater professionalism is going to be important; that means appropriate staff training and perhaps professional qualifications. More computerisation is inevitable. More guidance staff are needed for the front line work, backed up by computer-based information tools. The same demographic shift which is now boosting continuing education, will in turn boost the need for guiding adults into the newly expanding provision. All of this depends on a corresponding increase in the amount of research and development.

Universities. The university contribution to this research and development seems to have been relatively limited so far. The MSC has contracted commercial information consultants, and UDACE has looked largely to independent researchers. The Open University has been prominent in developing ECCTIS with its spill-over into several other computer-based information service projects. The OU has also been active through its regional offices in helping promote and run local EGSAs, and a few university continuing education departments have shown similar interest. At least two universities, Lancaster (3) and Edinburgh (13), have published research on adult guidance. The professional education of adult educators, which several universities provide, might be a suitable vehicle for much needed guidance staff training. No doubt there is some individual provision now in some certificate and diploma programmes and through individual higher degree theses, but guidance could become more prominent as a specialist staff development programme in its own right. Guidance is one of the strongest growth areas in continuing education and more university involvement can only be mutually beneficial.

References

(1) Department of Education and Science Adult Education: A Plan for Development, HM Stationery Office 1973

(2) Open University Report of the Committee on Continuing Education, Open University 1976

(3) Percy K A et al Educational Information, Advisory and Counselling Services for Adults, University of Lancaster 1982

(4) Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education Links to Learning, ACACE 1979

(5) Department of Education and Science Educational Credit Transfer: Feasibility Study, DES 1979

(6) The latest edition is Directory of Educational Guidance Services for Adults 1987, ECCTIS/NAEGS 1987

(7) Butler L et al Case Studies in Educational Guidance for Adults, ACACE/NIACE 1984

(8) Directory of Educational Guidance Services for Adults 1986 ECCTIS/NAEGS 1986

(9) Unit for the Development of Adult Continuing Education The Challenge of Change, NIACE/UDACE 1986

(10) Butler L et al Information and Technology in Educational Guidance, NIACE/UDACE 1986

(11) Alloway J with Nelson P Advice and Guidance to Individuals, NIACE/UDACE 1986

(12) Allred J et al Managing Information in Educational Guidance, NIACE/UDACE 1988

(13) Alexander D J and Steward T Information and Guidance on Adult Learning Opportunities in Scotland, Scottish Education Department 1987.

The Practical and the Critical in the Study of Adult Education

Robin Usher,
Senior Lecturer in Adult Education Studies,
University of Southampton, UK.

Abstract

The need for an alternative theorisation of the study of adult education by locating it in the 'practical' is considered. This entails questioning the role of disciplines as constitutive or foundational.

The notion of adult education as a practical activity and field of enquiry is examined. This involves a critique of the 'technical-rationality' model and an alternative approach to understanding the theory-practice relationship.

The location of the study of adult education in the 'practical' has curricular consequences and raises issues of the relationship to the 'critical'. The place of the latter is considered through the interaction of the 'practical' and the 'critical' in praxis.

Introduction

In this paper I intend to indicate briefly what is involved in locating the study of adult education in the 'practical'. I assume that adult education is both a field of study and a field of practice. I begin by looking at the way in which the former has been conceptualised as a 'field of knowledge' and from this critique outline an alternative conceptualisation.

A 'field of knowledge', according to Hirst(1974), is a composite of disciplines integrated around either a theoretical or practical orientation. Medicine and engineering are commonly considered examples of the latter. Adult education is difficult to categorise and uncertain of its status. It has tried to be a theoretical field but whether it is that or a practical field or neither is a matter of controversy.

Bright(1985) argues that adult education has conceptualised itself as a theoretical field but mistakenly so since there has been an "illogical adoption of the independent, theoretical academic disciplines model"(Bright,p.179).In so doing, however, adult education also debars itself from being a practical field of knowledge since in both cases there is a failure to develop an appropriate integrating theory.

I would disagree with Bright over what constitutes an 'appropriate integrating theory', in particular from where such a theory would derive. Even if such a theory could be developed it would still be founded on academic disciplines within a field of knowledge whether of the practical or theoretical variety. In contrast, I would argue that the study of adult education must be located in the 'practical' and should, therefore, not be based or founded on disciplines. Whilst there is a place for the latter, that place is not foundational but pragmatic. The knowledge that is needed is practical not theoretical knowledge of a formal kind and thus cannot be the knowledge organised in disciplines.

Adult Education as a Practical Activity

In general terms, we can say that a practical activity is about using knowledge in order to act in the world and change it in certain ways. Castell and Freeman(1978) talk of education as a 'socio-practical' field where welfare considerations and contextual constraints are paramount. Theory(knowledge and understanding) is "instrumental to taking effective action to solve acknowledged practical problems" (Castell and Freeman,p.17). Social contexts are variable and the problems towards which practice is directed are identified by the need for continually effective action.

The emphasis on the solution of problems in contextually acceptable ways points to the use of practical knowledge. Theory and methods are eclectic and justification pragmatic. Furthermore the role of practitioners is crucial since it is they who are in the best position to define and resolve problems using their knowledge and understanding of the specificities of contexts.

This analysis is fruitful in relation to adult education both as a field of study and practice. Whilst Castell aand Freeman talk of education as a 'socio-practical' field there is no reason why the analysis cannot be applied across the board to all branches of education. In conceptualising adult education in this way we underline that it is an activity directly concerned with human welfare where value-judgements concerning the ends and means of the activity are unavoidable.

Practical Knowledge and the Technical-Rationality Model

Practical knowledge is about acting rightly and appropriately in the world and is associated with praxis--informed, committed action where theory and practice are mutually interactive. It has some of the following characteristics:

(i) it is situated knowledge and is thus always 'with' us.

(ii) as knowledge which is action-oriented, the ends and means of action are always co-implicated.

(iii) it has a necessary ethical dimension concerned with the rightness of actions--thus ends and means are co-determined within a framework of values.

(iv) with practical knowledge, the role of 'formal' theory is not to function as a set of 'master rules' to be read-off and applied to action in particular situations. Instead practical knowledge consists of a mediation of formal or informal theory in the light of particular situations.

The mode of understanding associated with practical knowledge is hermeneutic. Understanding is always situated and involves interpretation (giving meaning) and appropriation--the meaning of something is always a meaning for me in relation to my situatedness.

I would argue that practitioners are always in the process of 'making sense' of their world and are thus acting hermeneutically. They endeavour to act rightly and appropriately within particular practice situations by using practical knowledge. The latter is not the same as theoretical knowledge(the formal theory of disciplines) or technical 'know how'. These may be involved but always in a mediated form.

We can contrast practical knowledge with the 'technical-rationality' model which as Schon(1983) has pointed out is the prevalent paradigm of practice. Here theoretical knowledge or formal theory is deemed fundamental and is applied to the instrumental problems of practice. Theory is therefore privileged as 'real' knowledge whilst practice is merely application thus implying that the knowledge contained in practice is merely the skill of applying means to ends.

The role of formal theory in the technical rationality model is to tell the practitioner what is the case and what would happen if certain things are not done. The task of the practitioner is to apply this knowledge for the achievement of pre-defined ends in the most efficient and effective way. The practitioner is therefore portrayed as a 'technician'. It follows also that practice is not seen as situated and the place of values is ignored.

I have argued that understanding or 'making sense' is not a special kind of activity but is always present in practice. It involves 'application' but this is not an 'applied science' or technical-rationality mode of application. 'Making sense' is from one's own situatedness which is itself part of an interpretive culture located both within practice situations and the wider society.

Theorising the practical in this way portrays a very different picture to that projected by the technical-rationality model. The 'practical' need no longer be seen as a routine activity but a realm of knowledge in its own right with its own mode of understanding and reasoning. Consequently, the image of the practitioner portrayed is very different;the 'technician' is replaced by the 'reflective practitioner'.

The Theory-Practice Relationship

Given the existence of practical knowledge and its characteristics then, within practice, there is always an implicit or 'informal' theory. We can see practice as intentional activity implicated within frameworks of understanding. These enable practitioners to both make sense of and justify what they are doing. This contradicts the conventional view of practice as "thoughtless behaviour which exists separately from 'theory' and to which 'theory' can be applied"(Carr and Kemmis,1986,p.113). Since informal theory is always present in practice it structures and directs it. In this sense, therefore, the relationship between theory and practice is conceptual not contingent.

Informal theory can be seen as having three main components--personal experience, values and transmitted knowledge (Handal and Lauvas,1987). These, although separable for analytic purposes, are in reality interwoven. The inclusion of 'transmitted knowledge' points to the existence of a formal theory or knowledge with which the field of practice is conventionally associated. This emphasises a complex relationship between formal and informal theory.

This notion of informal practitioner theory although useful does have certain limitations. Practice can be informed and committed action but it may also be routine and habitual. Informal theory may not always guide practice in the most productive way. When it does not, problems arise which require an adjustment both of practice and of informal theory for their resolution.

If informal theory is to be an integral part of praxis then it is important to recognise the part played by power and ideology in shaping knowledge and understanding. This raises the question of the extent to which practitioners' frameworks of understanding are authentically their own and their efficacy in dealing with problems which are to do with the structural features of their situation.

If practitioners already possess a 'theory' then adult education as a field of study needs to work with this theory rather than the formal theory found in so-called foundation disciplines such as psychology. A theory which is located outside the practice of adult education must inevitably have little to say to it. It is hardly surprising therefore that practitioners' attempts to 'apply' this formal theory has met with little success and has led to the 'dilemma of rigour versus relevance'; a dilemma found both in practice and professional formation and by no means confined to adult education.

At the same time, because of its limitations, simply adopting informal theory and making this the exclusive content of the study of adult education will not do either. We have to recognise that practice knowledge in specific instances is itself situated in contexts where understandings and practice can be distorted. Thus a critical evaluation of the nature and adequacy of informal theory must be included. If the study of adult education is to be located in adult education as a field of practice the limitations of the 'practical' must always be taken into account.

Some Curricular Implications

The case made so far implies that a curriculum for the study of adult education cannot be founded on academic disciplines either individually or in inter-disciplinary composites. Any curriculum must appropriately reflect the location of the field of study in the practical, in other words, it must be hermeneutically based. In adult education there is a 'double hermeneutic' since both the study and its object are located within frameworks or hermeneutic situations from which they cannot be detached.

The elucidation of these can only come about through dialogue between practitioners and between practitioners, teachers and researchers. Hence teaching must be designed to facilitate this dialogue although the latter must be critical otherwise constraining factors will never be acknowledged and assessed.

It is impossible in this short paper to examine curricular approaches in detail. To a large extent this has been done elsewhere (Usher,1987; Usher and Bryant,1987; Usher,forthcoming; Usher and Bryant,forthcoming).All I will do therefore is highlight some key features.

One of these is an issue hitherto only touched on and that is the role of disciplines or formal theory. We have already noted that formal theory is always already present in informal theory. But formal theory can also play a more constructive part given that the frameworks within which informal theory is located can be constraining.Since it is concerned with with representation aand explanation of the world but is 'outside' the immediate world of everyday practice it can facilitate the 're-presentation' of practice problems not through direct application but as a source of metaphor and sensitising concepts--a means of viewing them in a different and critical way.

The term 'review' given its connotation of 'looking back' and 're-considering' aptly characterises the process. Instead of formal theory being applied to practice we have informal theory (and practice) 'reviewed' through formal theory. In this sense, we can characterise formal theory, following Rorty(1981), as an ingredient in a developing and edifying discourse. Its role is not foundational but pragmatic in helping us to cope with the world and to create ourselves in it.

A discipline or formal theory, however, is not merely a body of neutral knowledge in an abstract theoretical vacuum. It is, on the contrary, itself located in social practices of a discursive and material kind. Conventional adult education 'theory' insofar as it is derived from psychology is part of a discourse which not only constitutes the 'adult' as an object of study but is increasingly involved in regulatory practices. The consequence is that although formal theory is already present within practice and informal theory it can be present in an ideological form which systematically distorts practice.

This implies that a process is needed that puts formal theory into a context by examining its assumptions, concepts, values and language. Thus contextualised, formal theory can be seen as explaining the world in a particular way and from a particular standpoint and being more or less helpful in so doing--ultimately, therefore, a pragmatic test.

I see 'review' as a dialogical process which mediates formal and informal theory, enabling a process of counter-posing and mutual questioning. It is, in effect, a 'fusion of horizons' (Gadamer,1970) beween formal and informal theory which deepens understanding and opens up the possibility of changes in practice. It subjects both existing practice and underlying understandings to critical scrutiny and thus exposes the distorting effects of ideology and power. In this way informal theory can go beyond the 'taken for granted',formal theory can be pragmatic and edifying rather than foundational and practice become truly informed and committed.

Conclusions

Adult education as field of study has not developed its own theory but has borrowed principally from psychology. Whilst this dependence was probably an inevitable feature of professionalisation and an increasing implication with regulatory practices it has had a distorting and unhelpful effect on the development of adult education as a field of study and practice.

As I have stressed, the practitioner needs pragmatic knowledge. Since practice is always situated, knowledge is to do with coping and understanding, with acting rightly and appropriately in particular situations, with the process of creating' oneself through practice rather than with epistemological certainty and 'objective' truth. It is concerned with the practical knowledge already present in practice.

Adult education as a field of study has systematically failed to recognise this. Consequently it does not adequately relate to its field of practice. The effect of this as far as teaching is concerned has been to emphasise either the transmission of formal knowledge (or formal theory) or 'working with experience' or an uneasy attempt to integrate the two through 'application'. None of his has worked very well. Therefore, the knowledge, understandings and theory distinctive of practice need to inform the content of the study of adult education and the approach to teaching the latter needs to be relevant and congruent.

A pragmatic orientation to theory and method is justified in terms of a commitment to the practical but this itself is conditional on a commitment to the critical. Without this, theory becomes mere anecdotage and teaching becomes inspirational ego-boosting. Adult education by abandoning the attempt to found its theory on academic disciplines can develop a critical theory and approach appropriate to its nature as a practical activity. Whilst disciplines have a part to play, their role is to help ensure that 'horizons' of understanding are open as possible.

References

Bright,B.P.(1985) 'The Content-Method Relationship in the Study of Adult Education' Studies in the Education of Adults, 17-2,pp.168-183.

Carr,W. and Kemmis,S.(1986) Becoming Critical, Lewes: Falmer Press.

de Castell,S.and Freeman,H. (1978) 'Education as a Socio-Practical Field: The Theory-Practice Question Reformulated'. Journal of Philosophy of Education, 20-2, pp177-186.

Gadamer,H.G.(1975) Truth and Method London: Sheed and Ward.

Handal,G.and Lauvas,P.(1987) Promoting Reflective Teaching Milton Keynes: SRHE and OU Press.

Hirst,P.H.(1974) Knowledge and the Curriculum London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Rorty,R.(1981) Philosophy and the Mirror of Nature. Oxford: Blackwell.

Schon,D.A.(1983) The Reflective Practitioner London: Temple Smith.

Usher,R.S.(1987) 'The Place of Theory in Designing Curricula...' Studies in the Education of Adults, 19-1, pp.26-36.

Usher,R.S.and Bryant,I. (1987) 'Re-examining the Theory-Practice Relationship'. Studies in Higher Education, 12-2, pp201-212.

Usher,R.S.(forthcoming) 'Locating Adult Education in the Practical' in Bright,B.P.(ed) Theory and Practice in the Study of Adult Education. London:Routledge

Usher,R.S.and Bryant,I. (forthcoming) The Captive Triangle:Theory,Practice and Research for Adult Education. London: Routledge.

Karen E Watkins **University of Texas**

An Investigation of Social Learning Constructs of Human Resource Developers Using Argyris' Action Mapping

Abstract

This research examined the beliefs of human resource developers about their own learning and training practices. Using Argyris' theory of action framework and mapping technique, potential dysfunctional, unintended consequences of these beliefs were identified. Interviews with 47 human resource developers at three separate sites revealed similar patterns of beliefs which are depicted in terms of Freire's stages of consciousness.

Introduction and Statement of the Problem

Research on the practice of human resource developers has been largely prescriptions for competencies, descriptions of roles or status reports of activities. Research sponsored by the American Society for Training and Development (McLagan, 1983) led to the identification of ten human resource development roles and 35 core competencies for trainers. Using a delphi process, individuals nominated as experts by the society's members identified competencies, ranked them and listed behavioral indicators for each of the competencies. Since individuals were asked to describe current practice, this pivotal study is limited by the lack of corroborating observations of current practice and by the lack of a model for ideal practice. This perceptual data is also more likely to be espoused theories about practice than actual practice (Argyris and Schon, 1974).

In addition to several studies of the competencies of human resource developers, others have emphasized roles (Nadler, 1983) or training methods (Kerrigan and Luke, 1987). Yet, since individuals' beliefs lead to their actions (Argyris and Schon, 1974), it is appropriate to determine their beliefs about human resource development, examples of what they do as educators and as learners and to reflect on the consequences of these actions. This study examined these beliefs through accounts of critical incidents in human resource developer's own workplace learning and teaching. Through these accounts, possible contradictions between what they do for themselves and what they do for others may be identified. An examination of the reasoning of these individuals regarding their practice of adult education in the workplace yields rich information from which to redesign graduate programs and to improve practice.

Research Questions

1. What are the causal patterns of reasoning about learning and about their practice that characterize human resource developers in three different organizational settings?
2. Are these patterns consistent across all three sites?

Theoretical Perspective

A theory of action perspective was used to examine the beliefs of human resource developers about their learning and about their practice. According to Argyris and Schon (1974), a theory of practice consists of a set of interrelated theories of action that specify what actions, given a particular situation, will yield desired results. They distinguish between espoused theories or intentions and theories-in-use or actions. The process of learning one's dysfunctional theories-in-use (those which are inconsistent with espoused theories or ineffective) is a process they see in terms of George Kelly's Psychology of Personal Constructs (1955). Kelly defines sees learning as the "psychological reconstruing of life" (p. 187). As Argyris and Schon phrase it, "behavioral learning involves the experience-based modification of some elements of theories-in-use governing variables, action strategies, or assumptions" (p. 18). This leads to their idea that there are two kinds of behavioral learning: changing action strategies or single loop learning and changing governing variables or double loop learning. Kelly's reconstrual would be most like double loop learning since it involves a reframing of one's personal constructs or ways of seeing the world. Kelly's theory rests on the fundamental assumption that "A person's processes are psychologically channelized by the ways in which he anticipates events" (p. 46). An individual's frame on an event will predict how he or she will psychologically experience it. Determining an individual's expectations and retrospective rationalizations about events may provide a window into that individual's "constructs" of the world - or their theories of action.

Argyris and Schon (1974) engage practitioners in reflection on their theories of action in terms of overall internal consistency (the absence of self-contradiction), the congruence between espoused theories and theories-in-use, the effectiveness of the action strategies individual's produce to implement their theories, and whether or not they value the behavioral world created by their theories and actions. In order for practitioners to alter their behavior, they will first have to identify the deep structures which currently hold them paralyzed in inconsistency or in double binds (Argyris, Putnam, and Smith, 1985) and confront the defensive routines which enable them to remain blind to their own inconsistency (Argyris, 1985). The intervention theory and method originally developed by Argyris to enable individuals to do this is now called action science.

Action science is a science of interpersonal action which produces knowledge which is disconfirmable, actionable, and critical or normative in that it offers alternatives to what is in terms of values actors may freely choose to adopt (Argyris, Putnam, and Smith, 1985). It is a theory, a type of intervention or practice, and a research approach. In this study, neither action science interventions nor research were conducted. Rather, the theory of action perspective was used as a theoretical framework through which espoused theories and theories-in-use could be identified with the aim of illuminating an alternative theory through which to ultimately transform human resource development practice. What human resource developers do when confronted with recurring problems in their practice and their reasoning about these problems were identified. An adaptation of Freire's (1970) stages of conscientizacao was used to characterize the resulting framing orientations with the first two stages from Freire (magical and naive) like Argyris' control orientation and the final stage (critical consciousness) like Argyris' learning orientation.

Methodology

As part of a larger study of the learning practices of human resource developers, data collected by Watkins and Wiswell (see Watkins and Wiswell, 1987) from interviews with 47 human resource developers were transcribed and analyzed. The sample was drawn almost equally from three different types of organizations: a research hospital, a high technology corporation, and a government agency.

For this portion of the study, the research procedure involved 30-60 minute interviews based on five open-ended questions with extensive probing for critical incidents reported in retrospective accounts. To the extent that it was possible, individuals were asked to recapture actual dialogue to illustrate key events following the critical incident technique of Flanagan (1954). Questions accessed individuals' beliefs and perceptions about the barriers to their learning in the organization, a critical incident which illustrates a recurring problem in their practice and another of a learning project, and the characteristics of exemplary learners in their organization. These questions are especially concerned with the meaning system of individuals, what Harre (in Cohen and Manion, 1985) describes as an ethogenic approach. The data was analyzed in terms of possible contradictions and double binds. This took the form of noting when individuals said two things that were inconsistent; when they said one thing and did another; when they described an event that was later described differently by other individuals; and when the group as a whole appeared to be in contradiction with either their own espoused theory or that of the field. This portion of the data analysis led to a list of possible double binds-incompatible beliefs which impeded competent action.

From these, themes were identified and depicted in theory of action maps (Argyris, 1983). These maps sparsely identify governing values or framing orientations, the action strategies which actors have described which fit these frames or values, and predict consequences from these strategies. Embedded in the maps may also be a suggestion of an alternative course of action. Argyris' (1983) action maps are intended as a form of data display which may be disconfirmed by respondents. Key features of these maps are that they must portray the interdependence and self-reinforcing quality of the variables individuals identify as relevant; they illustrate a causal theory of learning on which learning proceeds from governing variables or values to action strategies which yield intended and unintended consequences; the maps describe repetitive patterns that recur over time which means that these patterns also depict social systems. The maps show a pattern that is highly unlikely to change unless individuals' theories of action, their reasoning about the pattern, is altered which in turn can alter the organizational norms supporting their current reasoning. Argyris further notes that the maps transcend individual demographics to describe a system so culturally reinforced that most individuals in the system will either act consistently with the map or describe themselves as "bucking the system."

One of the constraints and therefore limitations of this study was the inability to develop this map in dialogue with all of the participants. The first version of the map was presented to the first site for discussion. Their comments were tape recorded and reviewed for potentially disconfirming data. Results indicated strong confirmation on the accuracy of the themes and the double binds. Consistent with the theory, individuals became even more convinced that "the constraints were insurmountable and the people intractable" (Argyris, Putnam, and Smith, 1985). This version of the map offers an alternative to the current situation in order to catalyze transformation of practice.

Results

Two recurring dilemmas encountered in practice by human resource developers were identified in all three sites though one site, the governmental agency, predictably had the most instances of references to the theme of "training is political." Figure 1 presents the composite action map from all three sites. Maps are accompanied by quotations and anecdotes from the data which dramatize how the theme depicted appears in the organization with an interpretation of how these beliefs may lead to undesirable consequences or an undermining of the individuals' intentions. Two anecdotes follow.

The idea that training is art can be seen in the many instances when trainers were asked to develop courses within timeframes they knew to be pedagogically unsound. One individual reported to the training director that many more training programs had been requested by her department than she could possibly develop and schedule within the needed timeframes. In addition, influential members of the department had complained to the training director that this trainer did not listen or pay attention to their needs. The training director suggested that she listen attentively to their requests, nod empathically, then continue as before. On the one hand, this strategy may convey that trainers are empathic, but by not clarifying the limits of training, it may also inadvertently encourage the department to believe that the training department can do anything they ask which might increase their demands both in terms of quantity and in terms of a lack of realism regarding the purpose and outcomes of training.

Political influences on training could be seen in the well-developed argument of one trainer that time management training was a waste of time because it did not lead to any real behavior change and thus not only did not increase productivity, but also took people away from their work for five full days, thereby lowering their productivity. Contrasting this view was that of numerous other respondents whose perception was that time management training had been very effective for them. When the new training director eliminated this training they were left without any training at all, feeling devalued. Thus, this trainer's value of training for behavior change and increased productivity may have conflicted with learners' value of training as a reward. In cancelling the training, the trainer may have inadvertently undermined the goal of increasing productivity if learners begin to feel devalued enough to leave, slow down, or sabotage their work.

Educational/Scientific Importance of This Research

From an educational perspective, the findings from this study can alert current and future practitioners to unconscious beliefs they may hold that will impede their effectiveness. Developing awareness of such beliefs and acquiring skill in reflecting on one's practice are competencies that this study suggests would enhance the curricula of graduate adult education and human resource development programs. Further, mapping social learning constructs is a unique method of presenting data that only help individuals transform their perspective on their practice. Limitations of this study include the potential for subjectivity in both subjects and interviewers, and the lack of corroboration of the findings by some of the subjects. As in most qualitative data, this research has limited generalizability due to the small size of the sample and lack of control for representativeness of the sample. Additional research questions suggested by the findings from this study include: What other strategies are suggested by these themes? What strategies transform practice? To what extent do maps depict generalizable, testable data about professionals' theories of action?

References

Argyris, C. "Making Social Science Research More Usable: Maps for Action." Presentation to Center for Effective Organizations, University of Southern California, November, 1983.

________, Putnam, R. and Smith, D. Action Science. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1985.

________ and Schon, D. Theory in Practice: Increasing Professional Effectiveness. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1974.

Cohen, L. and Manion, L. Research Methods in Education, Second edition. London: Croom Helm, 1985.

Flanagan, J. "The Critical Incident Technique." Psychological Bulletin, 51(4), July, 1954, 327-358.

Freire, P. Pedagogy of the Oppressed. New York: Continuum, 1970.

Kelly, G. The Psychology of Personal Constructs, Vol. 1. New York: Norton and Co., 1955.

Kerrigan, J. and Luke J. Management Training Strategies for Developing Countries. Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner Publishers, 1987.

McLagan, P. Models for Excellence. Washington, DC: ASTD, 1983.

Nadler, L. Human Resource Development: The Perspective of Business and Industry, ERIC Clearinghouse: Ohio State University, 1983.

Shor, I and Freire, P. A Pedagogy for Liberation, Smith Hadley, MA: Bergin and Garvey Publishing, 1987.

Watkins, K. and Wiswell, A. "Incidental Learning in the Workplace." Western Regional HRMOB Conference, San Antonio, 1987.

Figure 1

Framing Orientations	Beliefs of Trainers	Action Strategies
Magical "You're born with talent or you're not"	"Training is Art"	--support the idea that trainers who have "it" don't need training; those who don't couldn't learn anyway --hold excellent trainers in awe and discount personal capacity to emulate them --discount technology of training by emphasizing technical expertise over training expertise when choosing own learning activities --minimize clarifying of outcomes, purposes, time needed for different outcomes and purposes, and cost justification of training --avoid seeking valid information about performance
Naive "We can't do it because we're oppressed"	"Training is Political"	--assume training is a negotiable benefit for self; blame others for holding the same assumption --delegate determining training needs and modality to supervisors who will enact personal cultural norms about how best to learn --remain unaware of implicit priority setting in bending rules/compromising educational goals/setting budgets
Critical Consciousness "We're colluding with our oppressors. We need to break out of the system that oppresses us"	"Training is Learning"	--*Trainers actively engage in learning about learning. --Trainers encourage different views about training and design ways to test them. --Trainers publicly share and test their understandings of human resource development problems. --Trainers jointly design and implement solutions with learners. --Trainers and learners publicly reflect on results.

*adapted from Argyris, Putnam, Smith, 1985

Figure 1 continued

Consequences for the Training Function	Consequences for Learners
o Almost no one can do it "artfully," so few achieve high level of professionalism o Training will not be professional work o Managers have little solid information about how to use training o Training will become expendable	"Culture of Silence"
o Training is part of the reward and punishment system rather than the task accomplishment system o Trainers are vulnerable and personally responsible o Training is expendable	*"Culture of Sabotage"
Learners and trainers will experience less defensiveness, more trust Learners and trainers will feel mutually responsible for results Learners and trainers will feel freer to experiment, to take risks	"Culture of Empowerment"

*from Shor and Freire, 1987.

ENTERPRISE CULTURE AND THE RE-STRUCTURING OF BRITISH ADULT EDUCATION

Sallie Westwood
University of Leicester

The generation and reproduction of an 'enterprise culture' in Britain is a major part of the ideological project for Thatcherism and the 'free marketeers'. At the heart of this project is a deep contradiction which is explored in this paper - it is that, in order to secure enterprise culture the state must intervene not only in economic life but in the ideological sphere through training and educational ventures which, it would seem, the market would not otherwise sustain.

Prior to the eighties, the official view of adult education in Britain was of a demand led, market sensitive sector. This was, however, a fiction which did not take account of the material base of adult education located in both national and local states as grant aid to the responsible bodies and the local authority sector (Westwood, 1980). Now, the fiction is called up and the contradictions inherent in this characterisation are exposed. It is possible to argue that the field of adult education is being re-structured through the intervention of the state at a national and local level and that the rugged individualism of enterprise culture is emerging in adult education through the current emphasis upon 'open learning'.

In the post-war period adult education emerged as a stratified sector in which universities ran liberal adult education courses in areas of high status knowledge while the local authority sector ran non-vocational adult education across a wide range of subjects which, nevertheless, coalesced around a curriculum related to domestic skills, leisure activities and sports. Mee and Wiltshire (1978) note, for example, the consistency within mainstream adult education across a limited range of areas - arts/crafts, physical activities, intellectual studies, examination/vocational areas and courses for the 'disadvantaged'. In fact, 33% of the adult education curriculum is domestically based arts and crafts.

In the university sector the emphasis is upon intellectual pursuits and esoteric knowledge made available to those who have the cultural competence to unlock the courses guide. The local authority sector concentrates attention upon manual skills and the reproduction of school subjects, but vocational areas are located with typing and office skills, word processing and languages. It is within the further education sector that vocational education is primarily located, but even this is an education based on skills that are fast being overtaken by economic restructuring and the developments of new technology. The further education sector was primarily concerned with young people either in full-time education or on day release schemes whereas engaging in adult education is characterised as a voluntary activity.

The rugged individualism of enterprise culture is promoted with the symbols of nineteenth century capitalism, or the Dunkerque spirit, motifs recycled for worlds very far away from either of these eras. The new enterprise is located with a multinational world of global capitals both in Europe and the Pacific and the model behind the small business revival is the Japanese model of flexible working and multiple sub-contracting made famous in Europe by Benetton the clothing company (Mitter, 1986). The way in which the state is intervening in this process at the economic level can be seen in the current enthusiasm for training women in stitching skills that can be used in the home while the world of high tech pattern design and cutting, for example, stays in the factory and is largely the preserve of white men in what is now sometimes called the 'core sector'. The flexible, low paid and insecure sector which accounts for the majority of new jobs is characterised as the 'periphery' sector - it is not surprising that the language belongs to an earlier discourse on the economics of underdevelopment.

Enterprise and economic re-structuring have called forth a major restructuring of education via the Manpower Services Commission (Benn and Farley, 1985) which has promoted a new vocationalism (Cohen, 1984) in which skills and enterprise are located with economic success understood in an often very simple way. The comolexities of cultures in relation to skills, of work histories and working class cultures and communities is written out of the account and a 'new technicism' equates skills training with economic success. There have, therefore, been major interventions in the schooling system through initiatives such as TVEI I and II and the growth of the youth training scheme which effectively removes the majority of 16-18 year olds from the labour market through training schemes, work experience or some form of further and higher education - although the proportion in the latter remains low, especially among working class young people and black students.

For adult education the new technicism has emerged in two ways, one through the impact of PICKUP money for the university sector to be spent on promoting high tech ventures through innovations in science or other forms of innovatory training. Appointments to posts in the PICKUP area have been on short term contracts on the understanding that the posts will be income generating and cost effective i.e. enterprise in the university adult education sector. At the same time the most recent intervention has been designated 'enterprise money' through the MSC for the university sector and institutions have been invited to bid for money for schemes that promote enterprise in university education and among university graduates through management education and the development of new curricula While this is underway the material base for the liberal adult education programme, the extra-mural work of departments in universities, will disappear in 1989 and adult education will compete for funding alongside other areas of university work. The understanding is that extra-mural work should become more self-financing, more market oriented and those courses that will survive are those that the market will support. The market, ultimately, will decide the fate of liberal adult education. The interesting twist in this, of course, is that the official view has always held that adult education courses are market led and supported, the reality of this is now with the adult education sector.

Promoting the new world of enterprise in management and in technical skills is one area of intervention, another is with the adult unemployed and in the area of basic skills where both the Department of Education and Science and the Manpower Services Commission have intervened to promote a model of 'employability' which relates to skills and social competency training which includes literacy but more importantly, how to sell yourself to an employer. The role of the adult education sector here is a very difficult one - adult education does not provide jobs and only some courses are skills based in a vocational sense. Instead, the emphasis very often falls upon personal skills and development in relation to a specific account of employability. This area of work is the current version of adult education for 'the disadvantaged', providing a safe space for those disenfranchised through unemployment and one where individuals can learn to be more enterprising.

Enterprise culture is ruggedly individualist on the model of the abstracted individual - the entrepreneur of capitalism. The attempt is to make a radical break with paternalism and the aristocratic 'survivals' of British culture on the one hand and to generate a similar rupture with the collectivism of working class cultures and the Labour Movement which is, in part, the product of work cultures and masculine craft pride. Instead, there is to be an updated version of 'possessive individualism' in which the private is more and more priveleged and the public realm of cultures and society is denuded. The consequences for adult education are that some part of it would become a space for alternative traditions where other discourses can be maintained and where a diversity of cultures can thrive. This is linked to a notion of the civic culture and conceptions of citizenship which have been historically areas of contested terrain. Adult education is rife with contradictions, those between managerialism, the market and an ideology of needs meeting and those at the heart of enterprise culture which challenge a limited view of enterprise = profit to suggest a culture with a different history and a different future. It is this terrain which needs to be examined and debated and it is these challenges and contradictions which make the current conjuncture one of tremendous excitement in British adult education.

NOTES AND REFERENCES

C. BENN & J. FAIRLEY, Challenging the MSC on Jobs, Education and Training
Pluto: 1986

P. COHEN, 'Against the New Vocationalism', in I. Bates et al (eds) Schooling for the Dole: The New Vocationalism
Macmillan: 1984 pp 104-170

G. MEE & H. WILTSHIRE, Structure and Performance in Adult Education
Longman: 1978

S. MITTER, Common Fate, Common Bond: Women in the Global Economy
Pluto: 1986

S. WESTWOOD, 'Adult Education and the Sociology of Education', in
J. Thompson (ed) Adult Education for a Change
Hutchinson: 1981 pp 31-45

COMPUTER EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS (CEP) IN SWEDISH ADULT EDUCATION

Hans A Winter*

Abstract: CEP-educators and participants responded to a questionnaire focusing on two main-hypotheses:(1) CEP calls for solutions not naturally provided by adult educational traditions (2) the interpretation of CEP-policy by educators and participants is mainly due to chance. Hypothesis (2) was partly supported by the findings, hypothesis (1) was not.

Computer Educational Programs (CEP) in Swedish Adult Education

In this article you will experience the classical tension between intentions and reality. Intention in this paper is defined as the policy regarding the new technology and related computer educational programs (CEP), forwarded by the Swedish authorities (government and politicians). But there are two other, partly competing policy levels, namely the labour market and the citizens (the presumptive participants) as individuals. Reality here is defined as 386 CEP-actors' (22 teachers and administrators, 364 participants) responses to a questionnaire concerning frames for, realization and effects of CEP.

Introduction

As a consequence of the rapid development of the computer and information technology a new object for policy-making has emerged in this country. The first government bill on the matter was issued in 1982, termed "A coordinated computer-policy" (Samordnad datapolitik). The idea of coordination encompasses the computer technology itself, the use of computers in production and in (public) administration, and the consequences of this use. Thus there is an articulated ambition of Swedish politicians to control the computer technology and to assess and influence the effects of it (Winter and Riis, 1985). Traditionally the planning for the introduction of large educational programs in Sweden is done on the level of the minister-department and in more details worked out by a central authority. Often such planning is based on the results of a national commission investigation.

In the field of computer technology where the last decade's development went on extremely fast and the demands for education increased overwhelmingly, some preliminary decisions had to be taken already before the commissions had finished their work. In the fall of 1984 the Swedish Parliament made the statement (in my translation) "It is very important that a comprehensive computer-policy program is worked out immediately" (FiU 1983/84:28). As another initiative for a better overview over the new technology-development our Parliament made a proposal for working out a "National program for information technology" (NU 1983/84:11). During 1984 one of the government's central commissions finished its work and presented a final report called (in my translation) "Computers and changes in working life" (Datorer och arbetslivets förändring, SOU: 1984:20). Finally, in June 1985, our minister for future affairs, Ingvar Carlsson, presented to Parliament a proposition called (in my translation) "Computer-policy" (Datapolitik; Prop 1984/85:220). His intentions were to give a "general picture of how the use of computers were developing in our country, what the intended future development would be like and how the desired development could be implemented".

The realization of ideas and policies for CEP finally can be seen as a new challenge for the adult education system. In Sweden traditionally

---

* Linkoping University

the organization of large educational programs addressing adults gain from a set up of centralized, diversified and well experienced study-organizations. To transform policies, authority planning and participant expectancies into practice is a task for the local units of our study-organizations. Implementing CEP-courses in reality contains at least three steps:

i) interpreting policies, the technology development and presumptive participants expectancies when planning setting and content
ii) recruiting teachers and participants
iii) creating the physical environment and realizing the courses

To sum up, at least two major questions were unfolded in this introduction. The first of these questions concerns the readiness of our tradition-bound study organizations to effectuate an educational program for the new technologies. The second question concerns about how CEP-actors do interpret the policies as pre-conditions for planning and realization of the CEP-courses.

Is the Swedish system for adult education ready to face the challenge of CEP?

As mentioned earlier in this paper, the Swedish study organizations draw on long experience, strong traditions and routine settings when transforming national policies into concrete course arrangements. The answer to the question about our study-organizations' readiness for CEP depends on a critical point of departure related to whether computer knowledge can be handled in the same way as eg. maths, languages, sciences etc or if the new technology also in its educational setting and process calls for new solutions. As hypothesis (1) for this study one could argue that "CEP calls for solutions not naturally provided by the adult educational traditions". This hypothesis is in accordance with the opinion that a revolutionary technology also calls for revolutionary solutions (Fenton et al., 1987).

Are the educational actors ready to implement the policies for CEP?

This question very easily could be answered by a new question, namely 'do people act rationally'? Optimism in favour of an "automatic" coincidence between intentions and reality supposes a strong belief in a rationalistic model of planning (the "top-down-model"). On the other hand there is the possibility of a central policy as an average of common attitudes, beliefs and expectancies (the "bottom-up model"). Primarily related to the second view, hypothesis (2) for this study will be the following: "the interpretation of policy for CEP by educators and participants is mainly due to chance".

In the next section the Swedish governmental policy in terms of official documents as a frame for CEP will be analyzed within five key-aspects, initially described in Winter (1987).

Official policies for Computer/Information Technology Implementation and CEP-activities

As described in the introduction, Swedish politicians and authorities have made great efforts to express a governmental policy as a frame for computer technology implementation in our society and related educational activities. The central policies, as expressed in official documents were analized in terms of five key-decisions: the decision of action and initiative (about activities for getting control over the computer technology and programs for computer education), the decision of strategy (a choice between an "expert" and a "citizen" strategy), the decision of historical categorization (to handle computer technology as one of many or as a revolutionary innovation), the decision of instrumental use (about the priority for development within the diversity of computer technology applications) and finally the decision of implementation (how to implement the new technology in society, labour market and citizens' private sphere).

The findings in analyzing the main documents show some very explicit and some more vague political decisions as bases for CEP-activities. The single decisions in our five key-categories can be summarized as following:

The decision of action and initiative. There is a clear decision amongst politicians in Sweden in favour of an ambition to control the policies for as well as the implementation and use of the new technology. In one of the main documents the government states clearly that (in my translation) "Neither the "market" nor the "technological development" should take over as directing/controlling principles".

The decision of strategy. There is also a clear decision in favour of a citizen-strategy. The minister of education for example states as follows "All citizens should have the right to get information and knowledge about the possibilities and risk related to the information society" (Prop 1981.82:123). Many other politicians later on expressed their worries about the realization of this statement: "If we don't succeed in leading the new technology into a democratic and liberating path, we will get increasing educational gaps in our society" (quoted from a speech in the Swedish Parliament, my translation).

The decision of historical categorization. No clear decision is made about the important historical classification of computer technology and computer education. At the same time a lot of statements and speeches are made expressing a view of judging this technology as a very exclusive link in the technology development of mankind. Nevertheless only a minority seems to realize the consequences for CEP when classifying the computer/information technology as a revolutionary innovation.

The decision of instrumental use. The instrumental decision is handled in a pragmatic way. The technology is seen as a general instrument for modernizing, restructuring, rationalizing the Swedish industries and public administration. No favourite areas are made explicit.

The decision of implementation. There is no doubt in the governmental policy about the way to implement computer technology in society. Strong efforts for a nationwide computer literacy program are made and a lot of initiatives are taken.

To sum up, the main documents expressing the official policy as a frame for computer educational programs (CEP) for Swedish adults were analyzed in terms of five key decisions. As a result there can be seen clear decisions in favour of control over the technology development in this country, a citizen strategy and an educational program for implementing the new technology. On the other hand there are no clear decisions related to the historical categorization of computer/information technology and in terms of instrumentality.

As frames for CEP the ambiguity in relation to the historical decision opens for a struggle between those advocating an opinion that computer education can be organized and taught as other subjects and those taking the opposite position that a revolutionary technology also calls for revolutionary educational solutions. The lack of a clear decision in terms of focus for technology use and development opens for a great variety of definitions of content with following difficulties for employers to compare different kinds of education. But the lack of ponderosity also gives way to a broad and open definition of content, probably facilitating the effectuation of the citizen strategy.

The Study

The general aim of this study is to replace contemporary guessing around the phenomena of computer education and CEP. Three questions are in focus:

1) How do educators and participants interpret the preconditions for CEP and what kind of policy do these interpretations mirror?
2) How do the respondents judge the educational process, and does their interpretation of preconditions explain their assessment of the educational process?
3) What are the perceived effects of CEP, and does the respondent's assessment of the educational process explain their opinion about effects?

The data described in this paper originate from a pilot study limited to the community of Linköping (app 125 thousand inhabitants). The population for the study are all educators (teachers/administrators) and participants in CEP during spring 1987 in this community. Vocational programs for computer technology related occupations were excluded from the study.

Respondents to the questionnaire were 364 participants and 22 educators from four adult study organizations. Two students presented the study to each of the classes, distributed and recollected the questionnaires after approximately 40 minutes, so there is no external drop out, other than those being absent, to report.

The model of inquiry. As model of inquiry the educators' and the participants' personal interpretations of the central policies (preconditions) for CEP are seen as independent variables for an analysis of the educational process. Several aspects of the educational process at the next step of analysis represent the independent variables for the analysis of the educational effects. These are measured as participants' experienced effects on their roles as citizens, members of working life and as private persons. Also educators are asked to give their opinions about the effects of their work.

Summary of results and their implications

As an aim for this study three main questions and two hypotheses were brought into focus.

The ambition in question (1) was to illuminate the CEP-actors' (educators and participants) interpretation of central policies as preconditions for the computer education initiatives. In coincidence with the policy put forward by the politicians and authorities a majority of CEP-actors support the citizen strategy and the decision of implementing the new technology through CEP for all adults. CEP-actors show a surprisingly great ambiguity in relation to who should take initiatives and define the frames for CEP and are also weak in their opinion about focus for technology applicability. Much clearer than the central policy makers are the CEP-actors in classifying the new technology as a revolutionary innovation.

In focus of question (2) was the CEP-actors' assessments of the educational process and how these assessments could be explained in terms of their interpretation of preconditions. The study shows participants very satisfied with the teachers' ability to teach the subject and medium evaluations of educators' success in effectuating the CEP goals, the study environment and the technical equipment. Rather low satisfaction was induced by the teaching materials. Educators' and participants' ratings on the educational process coincided well when dealing with the physical aspects of the process. When judging their own ability to teach the subject and to realize the program educators rated strikingly lower than the participants.

On the basis of a series of multiple regressions the results showed no explanation of the educational process through the participants' interpretations of the CEP-preconditions.

The aim of question (3) was to describe and hopefully explain the participants' experienced effects of CEP. When collecting our data 47 per cent of the participants were in the beginning of their CEP, 46 per cent in the middle and 7 per cent in the end of it. The study showed approximately 70 per cent of the CEP-participants already experiencing positive effects for their role as citizens, as members of labour-market or for their private sphere. Only 12 out of 22 educators believe in positive effects of CEP for their students. As main effects of CEP the participants experience personal growth, followed by formal merits and at the lowest level the ability to influence decisions. Educators judge a recurrent CEP-program as very important, participants as medium important. As a result of a series of multiple regression analyses the study shows (not surprisingly) the three dimensions of CEP-effects not mainly explained by the educational process itself but by the participants' expectations on the program.

Hypothesis (1) took up the argument of CEP calling for solutions not naturally provided by the Swedish traditions for adult education. A vast majority of CEP-actors agree with the argument of computer and information technology as a revolutionary innovation but seem to experience a great amount of flexibility within the study organizations when dealing with the CEP challenge. Through finding rather satisfied CEP-participants this hypothesis gets no support in the presented results.

Hypothesis (2) put forward the argument of a rather arbitrary relationship between central policies and local actors' interpretations of program preconditions. This hypothesis partly gains support by the results of the study. The two respondent groups of CEP-actors show rather ambiguous attitudes as regards who (politicians/authorities, labour-market parties or single individuals) should be the most influential policy-makers for CEP. On the other hand a majority of respondents do agree with the official policy-makers on a citizen strategy and on CEP as the best way of implementing the new technology in our society.

When discussing the results of this study its methodological weaknesses in some aspects should be pointed out. For example, the exclusive dependency on questionnaire data could be mentioned, as well as the difficulty in comparing central policies and actor policies, and, finally, the weak basis for the respondents to judge effects of CEP already during the ongoing courses.

In respect to the former shortcomings, the presented pilot study of course has to be extended in terms of number and types of respondents, completed by other data sources and a refined use of the presented policy-analyzing taxonomy. The shortcomings of judging CEP-effects already during the course at a preliminary glance seems serious but comes in another light when considering that participants mainly experience effects of personal growth. This psychologicial effect one could argue (a) is a very important one, (b) is probably not directly related to the participants' advancement in the course and (c) in its turn can be hypothesized as an independent variable for actions leading to more measureable effects later on.

Some clear implications can also been seen. On the basis of the presented study at least the following CEP-aspects call on attention for improvement or change: (a) initiatives for improving the teaching materials and the technical equipment for CEP should be taken, and (b) in considering participants' low expectancies and the low judgment of effects on the possibility of influence on decisions, nowadays CEP-initiatives do not seem to gain the implementation of a citizen strategy. To support this strategy the CEP-content seems to be in need of a radical change.

References

Fenton, S.L., Black, J.P. and Dyck, V.A. New Vistas in Computer Literacy. In: Wheels for the Mind Europe. An Apple University Publ. Lund: University of Lund, 2 August 1987.

FiU 1983/84:28. Finansutskottets betänkande. Motion 1437; 2051; 2111. Riksdagstrycket 1983/84.

NU 1984:1. Nordisk handlingsplan på datateknologiomradet. Stockholm: Liber, 1984, 1984 (NU-serien 1984:1).

Proposition 1981/82:123. Regeringens prop on Samordnad datapolitik.

Proposition 1984/85:220. Regeringens prop om Datapolitik.

SOU 1984:20 Datorer och arbetslivets förändring. Slutbetänkande från Dataeffektutredningen (DEU).

Winter, H.A. & Riis, U. Computer Education and Democracy. New Information Technology and Adult Education. Published by the European Bureau of Adult Education. 1985-1/2.

Winter, H.A. Datakumskap - Datautbildning. Rapport nr 2, from the Linköping Adult Research-group. Linköping: University of Linköping, Department of Education and Psychology, 1987.

INFORMAL ADULT LEARNING NETWORKS IN A CLIMATE OF SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CHANGE: AN ANALYSIS

Alexandra Withnall, Research Officer
National Institute of Adult Continuing Education
(England and Wales)

Abstract: This paper examines the phenomenon of informal adult learning networks in Britain through the construction of a typology. It also considers the implications of the growth of 'networking' for adult educators.

1. Introduction

Although the term has not been used consistently, informal adult learning has generally been distinguished from formal and non-formal learning in that it concerns the whole lifelong process by which individuals acquire skills, values and knowledge from daily experience and interaction with others. Such a wide-ranging definition of informal adult learning obviously encompasses an enormous variety of human activities and includes learning which may be unplanned or incidental. Indeed it may suggest that every existential experience is a learning phenomenon and we have therefore major definitional problems to face.

The philosophy of informal learning draws on the mutual aid traditions which can be identified in major studies of the history of adult education. Through membership of, for example, clubs, societies, religious, professional and trade organisations, it is likely that a substantial proportion of the adult population is currently involved in some form of learning in this sense. The importance of the notion is now widely accepted by policy-makers and adult education practitioners alike in that the whole question of recognition of informally-acquired, experiential learning within an individual's life is at present being debated.

In recent years, there have been various attempts to establish some boundaries in this field of knowledge. The definition of informal learning to be adopted here is that which assumes the willing and conscious involvement of the learner in the educational process; which does not lead to qualifications and which may have no guidance from any institututional or legally identifiable agency. It may well rely on personal networks which may not, however, have been established primarily for educational reasons, but educational activities may have emerged within such networks so that the original accidental process becomes a consciously deliberate process.

The concept of 'networking' as a mechanism for informal adult learning attracted attention through the theoretical writings of the 'de-schoolers' such as Illich (1971) and Reimer (1971) who advocated the disestablishment of the school system to be replaced by new relational structures which would facilitate access to resources for the use of anyone motivated to seek them for his/her education. As yet, however, as Brookfield (1986) pointed out, the nature of 'networking' has received relatively little attention from adult educators and its potential for enhancing learning, personal, professional and political development has not been fully investigated. Consequently, the focus of this paper will be directed towards an examination of various types of informal adult learning networks with particular reference to their current role in Britain through a description and classification of organisational features and activities.

2. Definition

For investigative purposes, an informal learning network is defined as a device by which a number of individuals or groups of individuals are united by some shared status, some common concern or some agreed-upon purpose; members of the network exchange information, ideas, skills and knowledge and perform a number of functions connected with problem-solving and the creation of new forms of knowledge or new modes of practice through a shared perception of their task. Such networks are not usually affiliated to any formal educational institution nor do they offer members any qualification and perhaps the outstanding feature of these activities lies in their rejection or abregation of institutions as a mediator in learning.

3. Methodology

Information about existing informal adult learning networks was acquired from three main sources:

- published and unpublished accounts of the history, structure and operation of various learning networks
- written personal accounts of the experience of individual members obtained in response to a general enquiry in the NIACE Newsletter
- content analysis of deliberately unstructured individual interviews with members of different networks who volunteered to discuss their perceptions in more detail.

From this basic evidence, the procedures followed were those established by Mezirow et.al (1975) known as 'synchronic induction'.

4. A Typology of Networks

4.1. Networks set up by adult educators for themselves

The formation of networks can be observed among professionals working in many fields and adult continuing education is no exception. Consequent upon demographic changes which, as Stock (1981) pointed out at the beginning of the decade, must be linked with economic trends and forecasts and technological developments in industry, commerce, service work, unemployment, education and training and retraining, the role of the adult educator has become increasingly complex. Professional adult educators work in a variety of contexts, in different organisational roles, in new curricular areas and frequently with new target groups. To some extent, the networks which they have organised for themselves reflect this diversity as well as the increasing need to keep abreast of particular developments and inform themselves of good practice.

The organisational format of their networks varies. Some have remained small and loosely structured whilst others depend on an elected committee to co-ordinate members' activities. Others again have expanded into professional organisations which have been able to forge international links. In recent years, mounting concern over social inequality and social injustice throughout the nations of the world coupled with a recognition that adult education has considerable potential as a force for social change has led some adult educators to seek to form international networks with the broad aims of promoting social equality, justice and human rights through the processes of adult education.

With the current rapid expansion of activity in the broad field of adult continuing education, it is likely that practioners at all levels will find it mandatory to become involved in some networking function according to their priorities and responsibilities. Different types of network activity will offer members different advantages. It is also predictable that some networks will need to change their focus, or indeed the nature of their membership, from time to time, in response to changing external circumstances and hence, the interests and concerns of members.

4.2 Networks facilitated by adult educators for others

The idea that a network approach to adult education can make learning more relevant to local people within a neighbourhood gained currency in Britain through the work of Lovett (1975) in Liverpool. He in turn based his thinking on both Illich's 'learning webs' and Freire's 'conscientization' methodology (1972). Such an approach implies that the educator's role is to identify and use existing community networks to assist people to relate learning to their own interests and needs by supplying resources. The aim is eventually to hand control of the learning processes to the learners. Such approaches can be identified in the work of Fordham et.al (1979), in Arnison's description of the Attleborough Experiment (1982) and in Johnston's efforts fo facilitate a local learning exchange within a working class area of Coventry (1980). However, Johnston confirmed Lovett's experience by pointing out the tensions such an approach can generate within the adult educator's role, particularly if he/she is employed on a formal basis and this has to reconcile loyalties to an employer with a commitment to local people in order to foster dialogue about needs, interests and problems. There is also the caveat that the whole network link can depend heavily on the whims of the central adult educator. Furthermore, the development of a network approach can be influenced by the nature of the vicinity in which it operates. For example, Johnson shows how, in the area where he was working, a heavy increase in unemployment influenced the orientation of his approach and he moved from a purely community-based model of provision to building up activites based on a community school; he then concentrated on confidence boosting, making use of talents for the benefit of the groups attending and responding quickly to any emerging learning needs.

A different approach may be discerned in one of the special adult basic education development projects funded by the Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit (ALBSU, 1985). On the premises of a drop-in centre in West London, adult educators facilited a network of study circles (with supporting activities) for students wanting a broadly-based mathematical education. The intention was to move towards co-operative learning and user control in order to discourage passivity, tutor-dependence, disabling student-student links. Developing such a subject based network meant that staff found it necessary to evolve a strategy which aimed to allow users to see that they could take on the necessary commitment. However, overall management of the experiment did not allow for direct user representation, an aim which staff felt would facilitate further learner control outside the Adult Education Service.

4.3 Networks created by individuals or organisations outside the Adult Education Service

It is increasingly apparent that informal learning networks which are not set up and facilited by adult educators, but by other individuals and organisations are growing up in response to changing social and economic conditions. These often take the form of neighbourhood skills/learning exchanges which have been described as a means of social and economic survival for individuals in the context of increasing unemployment, and as an important tool for community revival and development (Tobin, 1982). The schemes may operate within defined geographical boundaries. Members are of various ages and income levels and possess a variety of needs and skills. They are usually open to anyone and mostly operate non-monetary exchange systems.

The main types of exchange networks currently appear to be those based on existing ad hoc neighbourhood organisations where residents pool their talents and meet each others' needs through direct and indirect exchanges. Many of the exchanges have their origins with Volunteer Bureax and receive funding from a variety of sources including the Manpower Services Commission, Urban Aid, charitable trusts etc. The other type of exchange is that of the 'Yellow Pages' variety whereby network members wishing to teach or learn a skill or subject register with the network organisers; enquirers are given the names of other network members and then make their own arrangements for tuition. Such an arrangement has obviously been made feasible by the development of computer technology which assists the organisers in compiling registers of members. The major question is whether in fact a barter system of skill exchange is taking place between A and B without A or B learning a thing. However whatever learning system is used a skill to be exchanged may be in a craft or academic subject or it may be the exercise of the skill itself. In a survey of skill exchanges set up for unemployed people by a number of different bodies, Plouviez (1984) found that 'learning' was often used to denote what was in fact teaching. She also noted that in order to enhance mutual learning, participants neded guidance about local opportunities for additional learning, especially how to tap the resources of adult and further education.

Another difficulty is in the notation of 'exchange'. Plouviez found that most networks sooner or later come to stress the fact that 'skills' are given to others and that reciprocation either directly or indirectly, is a bonus. She also found that such exchanges are rarely static; although they may have the potential for success, local circumstances, misjudgements by members, management problems and lack of funding can cause problems which may ultimately result in collapse. Such networks obviously assume a degree of flexibility in their operational procedures and a willingness to diversify as circumstances alter.

4.4 Networks of self-help learners

Self-help learning networks differ very widely both in the way they are organised and in the topics they study. Although this variety means that they are not easy to classify, most identifiable networks appear to be either those which have grown up as an off-shoot of an existing organisation or those which have been set up and have developed very much on an ad hoc basis. Examples of the former include networks of church-based groups, political parties, trades unions, Women's Institutes etc. In these cases, the organisation's existing communications network can be used to recruit members who are generally already known to one another and are interested in learning with each other the mores of the organisation.

Examples of the latter include self-help learning networks which have often grown from the initiative and interest of one person or small group of people. Those that can be readily identified tend to reflect the needs of formerly quiescent groups not hitherto catered for within existing adult education structures. Hence the establishment in Cambridge in 1982 of the University of the Third Age, a self-help learning movement of retired people which has expanded rapidly throghout the country. Although the membership of each U3A group organises its own types and levels of activity, groups are linked under the aegis of the Third Age Trust and kept informed through a regular newspaper of events in other regions. But even here the influence of adult educators was paramount, namely through the activity of Lord Young of Dartington and Dr. Eric Midwinter.

There are a large number of women's groups and contact networks prompted by the development of the women's movement over the last twenty years. Although they may operate very differently, the accent is on the central notion of women taking control of their own learning, questioning traditional stereotypes and values and generating new knowledge based on their own life experiences. (Coote and Campbell, 1987) As this can equally be achieved through "mainstream" adult education, we must ask why it is necessary to set up informal groups and whether these groups are more political activists than education seekers.

Trends in unemployment have also led to the setting up of networks for self-help action among unemployed people in some areas, although some have eventually faltered through lack of funding.

Finally, a similar need to influence not just the content of learning, but to create the context by adopting new structures for learning may lead to the formation of organisations such as the 'New University' which aims to set up a network of 'catalytic communities ..... joined together by a thread of vision, information and exchanged resources' (New University, 1987). Here the political aims are interwoven with educational processes of learning.

A self-help learning network may change its objectives over time or may even decide to disband if the need for its existence is perceived by members to have passed because they have achieved their learning objectives. There may be insurmountable practical issues to be faced or relationships between members may be antagonistic. These which appear to flourish most successfully tend to operate within an agreed framework which is nevertheless flexible and responsive to members' needs. Wilson (1986) has discussed the many complex issues involved in starting and running self-help groups generally.

5. Implications of 'Networking' for Adult Educators

Whatever their primary aims and their modus operandi, networks are likely to face certain organisational issues which may include problems relating to communication among members; funding; publicity; organising activities; extending members' skills and knowledge; developing learning materials; growth or contraction; and relationships with other organisations. Such a taxonomy of functions suggests possible ways in which a professional adult educator may become involved in the operation of the various networks described above. His/her role may be as a member of a network where valuable experience may be shared with like-minded colleagues. He/she may be in a position to test the viability of a new network approach to informal learning or to develop a supportive relationship with an existing network and help to establish its credibility. Whatever approach is adopted the adult educator's own ideological stance should not constrict the selfdevelopment and autonomy of network members, the context in which the network operates and the motivation and wishes of members over time.

6. Conclusion

This paper has briefly surveyed some of the main types of the very wide variety of informal learning networks currently operating in Britain. However, there are certain problems inherent in any attempt to describe and classify informal learning activities of this nature. For example, networks having similar stated aims may operate under quite different circumstances. How they operate in practice and with what degree of success will depend largely on the needs and inclinations of members over a period of time combined with prevailing external circumstances. Published aims and policies may not be an accurate reflection of what actually occurs. Furthermore, within this framework, it is not possible to assess the educational benefits of membership of a learning network for individual participants. Such an evaluation would require a separate enquiry. There seems a lack of research of the educational dimensions of other types of networks which may offer members opportunities for learning through self-help support activities. In many ways informal networks may reflect a desire to be autonomous rather than to take part in educational processes; the issues deserve serious questionning research and evaluative enquiries.

REFERENCES

1. Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit, Study Circles at Walk-in Numeracy, Report of a Development Project, April 1983 - August 1985 (unpublished).
2. Arnison, P. The Attleborough Experiment - A Handbook, Cambridge, NEC, 1982
3. Brookfield, SD. Understanding and Facilitating Adult Learning, Milton Keynes, Open University Press, 1986
4. Coote, A and Campbell,B. Sweet Freedom, Oxford, Basil Blackwell, 1987.
5. Fordham, P et al. Learning Networks in Adult Education: non-formal education on a housing estate, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1979.
6. Freire, P. Pedagogy of the Oppressed, London, Penguin, 1972.
7. Illich, I. De-Schooling Society, London, Calder and Boyaro, 1971, Penguin, 1973.
8. Johnston, R. 'A learning exchange as part of community education' in Community Education Association Newsletter, No. 6, 1980 and 'A Network Approach to adult education' in The Political Papers, No.9, London, The City Lit., 1981
9. Lovett, T. Adult Education, Community Development and the Working Class, London, Ward Lock, 1975.
10. Mezirow, J. et.al. Last Gamble on Education - Dynamics of Adult Basic Education, Washington, D.C. Adult Education Association of the USA, 1975
11. New University News, No. 1, March 1987
12. Plouviez,M. Skills Exchanges. Notes on Schemes for Unemployed People Berkhamstead, the Volunteer Centre, 1984
13. Reimer, E. School is Dead, London, Penguin, 1971
14. Stock, A. 'Research on adult education: an agenda for the 1980s' in Educational Analysis, Vol. 3, No. 3, 1981
15. Tobin, D. 'The Barter Research project' in Voluntary Action for Leadership, Summer 1982
16. Wilson, J. Self-help Groups. Getting Started - Keeping Going, Harlow, Longman, 1986.

THE COUNSELLING ROLE OF THE TUTOR IN ADULT CONTINUING EDUCATION

by

Jackie Wootton
The Open University, Yorkshire Region

ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the way in which the counselling role of tutors in adult continuing education has developed in practice and challenges the pre-eminence and appropriateness of psychology as the theoretical basis for educational counselling.

There is potentially a wide range of outlets for support, guidance and information for adult students. This is reflected in the provision of educational advice services, computerised data banks, outreach work, access and study skills courses, the Open University and other distance learning schemes, as well as government and local authority training initiatives. This paper is confined to an examination of the development of a specific counselling element in courses for adult students. Such courses usually aim to achieve personal development, choice, or a change of direction whether personal or vocational, as well as, or by means of, academic study or skills training. Such courses are generally targetted at a particular or potential student group. New Directions, Access and New Opportunities courses, reorientation courses, as for the unemployed and newly retired, as well as a plethora of part-time degrees are the best known examples.

It is not easy to define the term "counselling" although there have been many attempts. Counselling usually denotes:

1. A helping or enabling relationship
2. Use of information and/or dialogue.
3. A consequent outcome or chosen course of action.

The essential distinction between couselling and teaching, informing or advising and making decisions is that the three aspects of counselling are interrelated and inseparable and the process takes place over a span of time or several meetings. Thus, in adult continuing education, counselling may be described as helping people make informed and realistic choices from a knowledge of feasible possibilities. Alternatively, educational counselling may simply mean, helping students derive maximum benefit from their chosen course of study.

During the years of experimentation and development, from the late 1960's in Britain, when courses with a counselling element were first devised, many tutors found themselves ill-prepared and with little guidance themselves as to what the counselling component entailed. They frequently felt inadequate or confused for the first course or two, but thereafter developed a range of skills and expertise and incorporated the counselling element into their teaching. There was a great deal of writing, meeting, discussion and publicity of the ideas and philosophy behind the early courses. In short, the pioneers of such courses were enthusiastic, largely self-taught in appropriate counselling skills and concerned to examine, share and develop new techiques and engage in self-training.

Nevertheless the uneasiness has remained and many educational counsellors still feel ambivalent and inadequate in their role. There are frequent references in the literature to the potential harm which can be done by inexpert counsellors or to "dangerous meddling" and "getting out of one's depth" by attempting to help with a student's severe emotional or personal problems. This confusion of roles stems from the strong association of counselling with psychology or even psychotherapy. Yet many professional educators now work as educational counsellors with little knowledge of counselling theory and no background in psychology or any of the social sciences. It would be easy to dismiss them as charlatans or to call for more rigorous professional training or qualifications. The question raised by this paper is whether educational counselling can be defined and clarified by its actual practice and development rather than being defined and justified, as it frequently is, in terms of psychological theory. A secondary concern centres on the skills required for educational counselling and whether they require any special training or abilities other than those of an experienced teacher of adults.

From a sociological study of the social, political and economic context of the actual development of educational counselling it is possible to trace the development of two distinct traditions of educational counselling. [1] The first was grounded in what may be termed "good educational practice". This is the idea that adult education in this country is steeped in the democratic, egalitarian and participatory traditions of Tawney and Mansbridge. It is a long-standing tradition of concern and reform through education and the search for a common democratic culture. During the 1960's there was scant use of the term "counsellor" in adult education but there was an explicit concern for the continuing development of the whole person. This can be traced directly through the discussion of the adult education centre and the ensuing interest in fostering community relationships. The concept of the "animateur", knowing the community and devising an appropriate programme can be seen as an important formative idea. Realisation of the changing pace and pattern of daily life and adult needs formed the basis of a developed advisory role for the adult education organiser which recognised the increasing need for both men and women to retrain or change career in a rapidly changing economy.

Alongside these primarily social and ideological concerns came a distinct alternative tradition which derived from the developing field of psychology and psychodynamics which also informed the methodology and practice of adult education during the 1960's and beyond. This was an interest in interpersonal relationships and learning styles. The growth of professionalisation among adult educators seemed to call for new specialised techniques. Some practitioners found inspiration in the studies of group dynamics and group techniques developed mainly in America and, already applied to youth work and industrial training in Britain. Studies concentrated on the underlying interactions in groups and their latent functions, functions apart, that is, from the ostensible purpose of meeting. Adult educators were urged to experiment more with group techniques and activities, to find out more about the psychological factors affecting group interaction, member participation and the emergence of leaders.

This movement had its own mainstream roots, theoretical models and research tradition in humanistic psychology. Carl Rogers' work was highly influential. [2] He advocated a discovery-learning approach, based on the premise that adults will only learn effectively if they become fully personally involved in the subject matter and only if they have freely chosen what, how and when they will learn. There is a clear continuity here with current concerns of Open Learning and new learner strategies. There is an assumption that learning should be voluntary, involve the whole person and affect every aspect of the student's development. The facilitator, - the terms tutor, teacher, educator were rejected as connoting a distant, external and superior-inferior relationship - is urged to empathise with the learner and try to understand the learner's own subjective awareness of personal change and development through learning. The emphasis was on the process rather that the objectives of learning. T-groups - where the task of the groups was to study their own behaviour - were leaderless and unstructured. These ideas influenced much of the diversification of adult education during the 1960's such as the non-directive group work with medical and social workers and management training.

In general though, adult educationists were less impressed with and frequently hostile to what was construed as an authoritarian blueprint of what should count as good adult educational practice. The main intellectual tradition and development in adult education in Britain has remained socio-cultural in origin. Enid Hutchinson's Fresh Horizons courses [3] were clearly part of this socio-cultural tradition and were the forerunner to New Opportunites for Women and New Opportunities courses generally. The course design was premised on the view that adult students were not free agents, not always clear what they wanted or needed, that they found themselves undereducated, inappropriately trained or misinformed not through personal inadequacy but because of their social circumstances or lack of previous education; they needed specific information and guidance in order to make choices and decide on an appropriate course of action. Enid Hutchinson's ideas were highly influential on the development of a counselling role for adult tutors. [4] She was quite clear that the counselling role in such courses could not be separated from the teaching roles, and that study problems, personal circumstances and vocational ambitions were intertwined. She also emphasised the way in which the students helped each other with advice, personal support, contacts and information. This was an important and carefully fostered integral part of the course.

Fresh Horizons was not the only course offering this fusion of support, guidance and intellectual stimulation to adults but it was the first of its kind and it has formed the blue-print for later courses, now known collectively as second chance education. These courses operate with a tacit understanding that counselling should not be seen as a separate and professional activity by trained psychologists or psychotherapists but undertaken by sympathetic educationists with social or even political objectives and motivation. In researching the literature on the development of educational counselling it is evident that women tutors, many of them working part-time, have played a large part in the development of second chance education and more specifically in courses which encourage the separate development of women. Here the influence of the women's movement on the educational couselling element can be clearly seen. Tutors may themselves have experienced a career break and a subsequent loss of confidence or contact with the world of employment and can empathise with their students. Part-time work on second chance courses has often formed their bridge back to renewed confidence and paid employment. Some tutors and organisers attended the consciousness raising groups in the 1960's and 1970's where women met together to explore their lives and attitudes, their perceptions and relationships. The group discussions and counselling sessions of the women only courses share some of these features. Students are invited to discuss the structure of gender differences and the social and cultural context of their own development. Many find encouragement when they realise that they are not unique in lacking confidence or in not fulfilling their potential at school or college. Counselling sessions lead to heightened awareness, group solidarity and support.

Courses with a built-in counselling element have usually been motivated from a desire to reform or fight social inequalities. Such courses are informed by sociological rather than psychological theories and they have tended to lead to strategies for political or group action, as in adult classes for the unemployed, rather than to help through individual therapy. Still during the 1970's the psychological model of counselling seemed to gain sway. Specialisms developed so that counsellors are now found in medical, pastoral and employment settings; they may specialise in personal, sexual, marital or family relationships; the most recent developments are in AIDS counselling and disaster counselling. As counselling in education began to be accepted and discussed it came to be associated increasingly with personal and crisis counselling - counselling in an educational setting. It is seen as a specialised activity grounded in psychological theory and research which forms the basis of scientific testing grading and diagnosis. Counselling in Higher Education has generally followed this model. There is a strong drive towards professionalism whereby a specific set of skills and a code of ethics and practice are defined. Certification and the right to practise are dependent on completing an approved course of study devised and controlled by existing practitioners. College counsellors, like school and college counsellors in the United States, have already followed this path so that practitioners are now expected to hold a professional qualification. They are usually trained psychologists or psychologically trained counsellors. Counselling is seen as part of pastoral care and has a therapeutic element. There is an emphasis on individual problems or crises. Clients are seen as not coping, but as needing help or support. It is frequently envisaged that the training and further development of counselling in adult and continuing education should proceed along these lines necessitating specialised knowledge and training in practical psychological techniques. [5]

This model of counselling in an educational setting is not congruent with the actual development of educational counselling for adults which is concerned with normal developmental difficulties rather than personal deficiency or problems. In this alternative model the counsellors are primarily educationists, who see counselling as a natural refinement of a tradition of care and concern in adult education, as a natural consequence of good educational practice rather than an extension of the analyst's couch. They see counselling as a continuous proces, part of an effective relationship between tutor and student, not something which can be tacked on by providing student clients with an individual counselling interview. An empathic, helping relationship can be fostered within the teaching-learning setting without there being any danger of an inexpert or potentially harmful situation. Indeed it may be far more detrimental to apply inappropriate therapeutic techniques to a learning environment. Counselling is necessary within courses which have an aim of developing choices or offering a change of direction. Organisers of second chance courses have found that such counselling is most effective when undertaken by a sympathetic tutor rather than by a remote counselling service. There is evidence from the experience of the Open University that a separation of functions is ineffective. In a survey of more than 5,000 students and 2,000 part-time staff [6] foundation course students and staff overwhelmingly preferred the merged role of tutor-counsellor. There may well be occasion for some non-directive or crisis counselling on second chance courses where adults need time and space for personal assessment or to work through personal problems, just as there will always be adults in any walk of life or social setting who are in need of therapy or personal help, but generally this is the exception rather than the rule.

Most educational counsellors of adults have another major function, usually as tutor or organiser, occasionally information-gathering, possibly as administrator. They cannot be expected to be professional counsellors as well, nor is it appropriate that they should be. The argument for an integration of functions in educational counselling militates against a specialised non-directive counselling service except for specific individual cases of need. It does not rule out any form of specialisation. The development of women only courses or study skills courses is a form of specialisation, so was the formation of the adult information and guidance services. A separation of information and guidance is necessary to build up a sufficiently comprehensive data bank of information, to maintain independence and avoid the bias and self-publicity of institution-specific advice services. What has become clear from the examination of second chance education is that educational counselling needs to take place witin an environment of learning or personal career development; it cannot be separated and institutionalised.

FOOTNOTES AND REFERENCES

The author has been teaching and developing courses for adults since the early 1970's and is currently working as a Tutor-counsellor and Assistant Senior Counsellor for the Open University, Yorkshire Region.

1. Research into the history of the development of educational counselling for adults in Britain relies heavily on a close study of Adult Education, the Journal of the National Institute of Adult Edcuation.

2. ROGERS, C (1961): On Becoming a Person. London, Constable.

3. Fresh Horizons courses were developed in the mid 1960's by Enid Hutchinson at the City Literary Institute in London.

4. HUTCHINSON, E & EM: (1978) Learning Later. London, Routledge & Kegan Paul.

5. WOOLFE, R, MURGATROYD, S & RHYS, S (1987): Guidance and counselling in Adult and Continuing Education. Milton Keynes, Open University Press.

6. FIELD, J (1978): Tutor-counsellor evaluation: a preliminary note. Teaching at a Distance, No.12.

WELFARE-TO-WORK AND ADULT EDUCATION

Jeff Zacharakis-Jutz
Lindeman Center
Northern Illinois University
Chicago, Illinois, U.S.A.

Abstract: Adult education is central to recent welfare reform initiatives throughout the United States. Using Illinois' Project Chance as a case study, this research demonstrates how education has failed to address essential problems of welfare and poverty, and questions the role of adult educators in addressing these educational problems.

Welfare Reform: There is a wave of anticipation for welfare reform in the U.S. among both liberal and conservative politicians. Education is central to almost every reform proposal. New York Senator Daniel P. Moynihan's Jobs Opportunity and Basic Skills proposal advocates educational support to help the poor rise out of poverty.1 In Illinois, "Project Chance (PC) is not a make-work program," declared Governor James P. Thompson. "We are going to see to it that people on welfare acquire the education and skills they need to compete in the job market and achieve independence."2

Illinois has nearly 40 years of experience in welfare-to-work programs, dating back to 1949 when local governments were first given authority to create work and training programs. Since then there have been numerous work incentive programs.3 Hence, I was not surprised when a friend said, "I know a lot but am a master of none. I've gone to a lot of classes, and am even certified as an Emergency Medical Technician. But I can't get a job. I went through the two week PC orientation. It was a waste of time. I quit, and I'm still on welfare."4

Unfortunately, nowhere in the United States adult education literature is there policy analysis of education's role in government welfare-to-work programs. Yet, the impact and importance to the field of adult education are immense. PC alone will create more than 20,000 new student placements in Illinois in ABE (adult basic education), GED (general education diploma), and short-term skill training and certificate programs.5

Project Chance: PC is a welfare-to-work program which is mandatory for any adult who receives public assistance, does not have children under six years old, is not physically or mentally handicapped, or homeless, or chemically dependent. Once enrolled in PC, participants engage in a two month job search where they are required to make a certain number of job contacts per week. During this initial stage, participants are given no special training. If they do not find a job, they are given a full assessment to determine what prevented them from succeeding in this independent job search. Possible reasons range from personal problems such as drug addiction and depression to skill deficiencies. Caseworkers then determine which component the participant will be assigned to. For example, those who cannot read or lack a high school diploma are assigned to a GED or ABE class. There are various options available, all requiring a caseworker referral. The guiding policy PC has set for its caseworkers is, "the program selected will make the client employable in the shortest amount of time and at the least cost to the Department."6

Research Approach: In the *The New American Poverty*, political scientist Michael Harrington describes the impersonal "structures of misery" which suppress the growing number of America's poor.7 Frances Fox Piven and Richard Cloward have identified these structures to be rooted in a capitalist economy where welfare serves to placate and reduce crime among the poor, while ensuring a cheap labor force for corporate America.8 Many people whom I have met have described the humiliation they have endured while receiving public assistance. One injustice inherent in this "structure of misery" is the total alienation of people living in poverty from the political, policy-making processes which affect their lives. Any research, therefore, which fails to recognize this alienation is faulted.

The conclusions which emerged from this research stem from my personal involvement in Lindeman Center leadership development programs with adults who receive public assistance. Through these contacts, I was invited to be a member of Illinois Department of Public Aid's (IDPA) General Assistance (GA) Restructuring Advisory Committee. This committee met for five months between July and November in 1987 to write the rules for the Project Chance welfare reform package. The opportunity to write the rules for PC was an opportunity to help shape its policy. My other primary source of data was open discussion with people who had or were participating in PC, or had family members in the program. Some of these people were part of the Center's leadership programs, others were in GED or ABE classes. Data were gathered throughout this period from committee meetings, memos, draft documents, and discussions with people receiving public assistance, advocates representing not-for-profit organizations, and high level state officials. Most of this data will never be published, but are essential to understanding the short and long-term implications of PC.

In developing this research structure, I recognized that at one end of the welfare reform phenomena are the policy maker's and at the other are the people who are most affected by the policy. They are distinguished by race, class, and culture. Understanding the roles of adult educators at the policy end and the service delivery end is crucial in understanding the education of the poor in PC.

The Advisory Committee: The GA Restructuring Advisory Committee met on the 13th floor of a modern building on South

Michigan Avenue, facing Lake Michigan, a block from Chicago's Hilton, walking distance from the affluent shopping of the Magnificent Mile, and hidden from the ghettos where the policy would be implemented. Typically during the meetings, the IDPA bureaucrats sat at one end of a long table or against the back wall, while, the rest of the table was filled with advocates involved in poor people's issues, including welfare, homelessness, etc. This heightened the already adverse relationship between the two groups. The committee was mostly white, mostly male, mostly middle to upper-middle class. There were three women recipients of supplemental security income -- a government subsidy set aside for elderly and disabled. They were the representatives for all welfare recipients. There were no young adult recipients at this table, the group most affected by PC.

Even though education is a central component of PC, I was the only educator on the committee. When discussed, a vague notion of education as a panacea was used void of any substantive programatic strategies. In essence, education was a word frequently used but never conceptually analyzed.

Project "Fat" Chance: Today, two years since the program was initiated, critics have assailed PC as Project "Fat" Chance. PC is criticized for not providing meaningful training or creating jobs for the unemployed. As a result, PC is "just shuffling people around."9

Ironically, approximately 70% of PC participants who find jobs do so during the initial, independent job search, before a full assessment and any subsequent education.10 These successes are not distinguished in public reports from job placements resulting from education, thereby creating a false sense of PC's statistical success. John Muller, assistant associate director of IDPA said of PC's success, "I could concoct any figure you want but I don't think it would be worth quoting."11

IDPA throughout the meetings measured its results by how many recipients participated in PC and how many were placed in jobs. Through PC, 41,412 entered employment. Another 40,139 were sanctioned and benefits suspended for non-cooperation.12 Apparently sanctioning is as effective as job placement and education in achieving IDPA's goals. Sanctioning is an impersonal procedural process. One young woman related the trials of her mother who was sanctioned when "a form wasn't filled out and she got cut-off for three months."13

One incentive for participation is the potential job market for welfare recipients. The entering hourly wage medium for fiscal year 1987 was $3.86. Some 37% entered at or below minimum wage of $3.35, and another 28% at $3.36-$4.45. How feasible is it, at this wage, to leave welfare when you have children and no job security in an entry level position? As expected the number of participants who returned to public assistance after one year, was 26-32%, and after 18 months rose to 44%.14

Clearly, the statistics provided by IDPA suggest that recipients who enter jobs through PC do not leave poverty. Rather they become part of the working poor, until they return to public assistance.

"I Was Taught to Cheat": How do people survive on welfare when the benefits amount to less than 50% of the federally established level of poverty? In Chicago, a parent with two children receives $342 plus $210 dollars in foodstamps. Most of the cash payment is used for rent, leaving little money for clothes, toiletries, transportation, utilities and other non-food items. S/he babysits, cleans houses, cuts hair, does day labor, etc., to earn extra cash.15 Most people on welfare admit that this sort of cheating is common, if not expected in order to survive.

PC effectively inhibits ones ability to cheat. At minimum wage, a person earns $580 per month, while losing the cash payment.16 Although there is a gross increase in income while working, there are also new expenditures, including workclothes, childcare, and transportation. In addition, most minimum wage jobs do not provide necessary benefits such as health insurance. And, there is less time to cut hair and cheat just as there is less time to be with family. In essence, not only does PC fail to provide adequate income, it prohibits other forms of income.

As a result of this scenario, people usually return to public assistance, and re-enter PC. One way to cheat is through education. GED and ABE classes temporarily are "safe havens" requiring little time while ensuring benefits.

Educational Ghettoism: Education for the poor usually is within walking distance of home. Most person who live in Robert Taylor Homes (the largest public housing development in the world) never leave to attend class. Classes are held in back rooms of churches, community social rooms, neighborhood libraries, etc. Facilities are usually minimal, a chalk board, tables, chairs. Often the floor tile is aged and broken, and the room needs cleaning and paint. The windows overlook the students' neighborhood. The students are all neighbors and friends. Typically, classes are all black, Hispanic or white. The students are not mainstreamed. In fact they are culturally insulated from the mainstream. The only connections with the "outside" world are teacher and books. Commonly classes have 50% PC participants and a total of 75% welfare recipients.

How long does a student stay in a GED or ABE class? In the rare case when a student is able to pass a GED test, but needs to build self-confidence, s/he may be out in six weeks. If they begin at a fifth grade reading level, they may be there for two or more years -- assuming they go continuously. But many students interrupt their education for personal reasons, family illness, or to take a part-time job. These students may be in and out of these classes for four or more years, and never get a GED. Consciously or subconsciously, by playing "the education game" they know that they will not put their welfare benefits in jeopardy.

The role of the teacher is not clear. Most are "part-timers," receiving little training and less support. Many of the classes I have attended are boring, emphasizing a narrow curriculum designed to pass the GED test. Politicization of the classroom has yet to develop. Questions seldom asked include: "Why am I here? What kind of job will I be able to get when I graduate? Why do the few jobs pay so little? What kind of education do "the haves" receive? How will this education help my children? And how is this education relevant to my life?" The self-paced, individualistic nature of the curriculum prevents collective analyses of these questions.

Many of the talented GED and ABE students are motivated by an illusion of going to college after they graduate. Whereas GED and ABE can be long-term, subsequent education is limited to short-term programs. "The basic certificate (college credit courses) will be limited to two semester (non-preparatory) programs."17 Although there are many options for PC participants in Chicago, IDPA has contracted with the City Colleges for a large percentage of the new placements. Even though City Colleges has an extensive adult education program, this option may not, in fact, bode well for participants in light of new research revealing its failures.18 With a rapidly declining student enrollment, ambitious building expansion, and a dismal record of student preparation, City Colleges need new sources of money. The financial windfall of PC for City Colleges is obvious. These issue was not discussed during the committee meetings.

Education offered through PC is designed for the poor, becoming part of a recipient's educational ghetto. The Freirean cultural revolution through education that we studied in graduate school has yet to impact Chicago's poor.

Final Comments: Education in itself will not raise people out of welfare and poverty. In spite of the important role of education, a more humane, more imaginative, and socially relevant effort is needed to develop long-term education policies in welfare-to-work. If the goal of PC is social control of the poor, then it is successful. Education ignores the political realities of poverty when it merely processes individuals and fails to critically analyze socioeconomic aspects of class, race and culture. Education, if it promotes social change, must provide not only for personal development, but for personal development within the collective context of community and cultural development. PC ignores the "structural misery" of poverty.19 As adult education becomes more mainstream, it will be more difficult to criticize existing educational systems such as City Colleges and mandatory ABE and GED programs.

"Welfare reform" is a nebulous phrase, especially for the people who are dependent upon public aid. This study suggests that education in PC, in contradiction to what Governor Thompson claims, is not designed to help people compete in the employment arena and become independent wage earners. This study also suggests that there is a need for adult educators, in concert with students of these programs, to analyze the present role of education in welfare reform, and to develop policies which will lead to new strategies. The first step in developing these new policies is to recognize and rectify the destructive gap between policy makers and the people the policy will affect.

Yet, education, as manifested in welfare reform programs such as PC, is not without purpose. It provides a safe haven for recipients, jobs for adult educators, monies for education systems, and fulfills the needs of the policy makers to satisfy the taxpaying public.

Footnotes:

1 Clarence Page, "Moynihan's Plan: Welfare Tinkering, Not Much Change," *Chicago Star Tribune*, August 5, 1987.

2 IDPA Project Chance Annual Status Report, 1986, p.1.

3 IDPA Project Chance Report to the General Assembly, Fiscal Year 1987, pp. 2,3.

4 Residential Workshop with Young People Receiving Public Assistance, Lindeman Center, November 20, 1987.

5 This is number used by IDPA at the GA Restructuring Advisory Committee Meeting, July 13, 1987.

6 Report to General Assembly, 1987, p.54. And corroborated in discussions with committee members.

7 Michael Harrington, *The New American Poverty*, New York: Penguin Book, 1984.

8 Frances Fox Piven and Richard A. Cloward, "Humanitarianism in History," in Walter I. Trattner's (Ed.) *Social Welfare or Social Control?*, Knoxville: University of Tennessee Press, 1983, p.114.

9 "Jobs Project, 2 Years Old, Is Still Focus of Dispute," *New York Times*, September 15, 1987.

10 IDPA has not released official numbers, but this figure came up repeatedly during the committee meetings.

11 "Jobs Project," *New York Times*, September, 15, 1987.

12 Report to General Assembly, 1987, pp. 6, 14, 16.

13 Residentail Workshop, November 20, 1987.

14 Report to General Assembly, 1987, pp. 32, 36, 40.

15 This analysis is based on discussions with many people who have learned to survive on welfare.

16 Report to General Assembly, 1987, p.6.

17 Memo from Karen D. Maxsom, Chief, Bureau of Employment Programs, IDPA, to College Credit Subcommittee Members, on curriculum opportunities available through community colleges. August 19, 1987.

18 John Camper, "Taxes, costs soaring at City Colleges," *Chicago Tribune*, December 20, 1987.

19 Tom Lovett, Chris Clarke, Avila Kilmurray, *Adult Education and Community Action*, London: Croom Helm, 1983, p.2.

NEW DIRECTIONS FOR PARTICIPATION RESEARCH

INTRODUCTION TO THE SYMPOSIUM

Peter S. Cookson
Associate Professor of Adult Education
Penn State University

Abstract

This symposium focuses on adult education participation in light of a comprehensive theoretical framework which not only incorporates the prevailing social psychological paradigm but also the additional dimensions of the instructional setting, the organizational setting, and the societal ideologies and policies. Past and present research and theory in each of these dimensions is critically reviewed. New directions for future research are suggested.

Introduction

The primary focus of the impressive quantity of research and theory related to the phenomenon of participation in adult education has been on the personal and personal situational variables posited to "predict" participation in various learning activities. There is growing concern that the prevailing paradigm fails to account adequately for group, institutional, and societal dimensions. The main purpose of this symposium is to argue for new directions in this area. In addition to the need for additional study of (1) personal and personal situational variables, there is a need for new research directions which take into account the following domains: (2) group dynamics inherent in instructional settings; (3) characteristics, policies, and practices of sponsoring organizations; and (4) prevailing societal ideologies and policies.

The papers which follow each present a case for the eminence of a particular domain, highlighting ways in which variables in that domain interact with participation as both a causal antecedents and consequents. In this paper, some introductory comments regarding each domain are followed by a brief description of a comprehensive theoretical framework which, incorporating each of the domains, points to some possible new directions for the study of adult education participation.

Overview of the Four Domains

In both practical and theoretical terms, the phenomenon of adult education participation is regarded to be profoundly influenced by sets of factors: social psychological characteristics of the adult learners, the group dynamics inherent in instructional settings, the dynamics of organizational sponsors of education activities for adults, and prevailing societal ideologies and policies. To set the stage for description of a comprehensive theoretical framework which integrates these four sets of factors, each of these domains is briefly described below.

Social Psychological Factors

Most of the research conducted on adult education participation and the theories which have been advanced to explain the phenomena subsumed by that term have tended to emphasize a select number of social psychological and, to a lesser degree, social background characteristics of participants. The research has comprised two main approaches: (1) participation in formal organization-sponsored education activities and (2) individually-planned and self-directed, as well as formal organization-sponsored, education activities. Regardless of the approach, researchers of adult education participation have tended to eschew any attachment to theory.

Those who have proposed theoretical explanations of adult education participation, on the other hand, have not managed to expose their ideas to empirical test. Not unlike the research, the theories demonstrate a similar predilection to represent the phenomena of interest in terms of sets of interrelated social psychological and social background characteristics of the learners themselves. In the review of the social-psychological explanations that follows, Courtney categorizes and critiques this prevailing paradigm in terms of three main thrusts: (1) adult learning and decision model theory, (2) adult learning and motivational orientation, and (3) adult learning and life cycle status. With few exceptions, the all-important factor for each of these thrusts is the individual learner conceptualized in terms of a constellation of psychological and social-psychological attributes.

Instructional Setting Factors

Almost a quarter of century ago, Jensen (1964) called for adult educators concerned about meeting the education needs of adults to identify relevant socio-psychological variables "involved in and significant for [adult] instruction and (2) to indicate "the functional relationships which operate between the variables" (p. 137). Jensen proceeded to name five socio-psycholological variables, in particular, which constituted "operational indicators" of whether learning is taking place "in a directed and effective manner" (p. 137). The adult educator can determine how well a learning group is doing by collecting evidence as to:

(1) the progress the group is making toward achieving the instructional objectives,

(2) how will they are "holding together" to carry out the instructional tasks being used to achieve the objectives,

(3) how well individual members are participating in the instructional tasks,

(4) the degree of satisfaction individual group members are evidencing with their group experience, and

(5) how well individual members are acquiring the behaviors specified by the instructional objectives (p. 139).

One can extrapolate from Jensen's "operational indicators" sources of influence in the instructional setting which probably moderate the nature and pattern of adult education participation. Positive values for each of these factors may be hypothesized to be positively associated with the persistence of adults who have already initiated their participation. Such factors can be added to the instructional factors identified in the second paper which follows by Höghielm. In specific terms, he highlights the importance of "frame factors," consisting of the providing organization's ideals, the contextual framework (i.e., the curriculum, administrative reality, and judicial requirements), and both the instructor's ability and intentions. Although these instructional factors have yet to be examined in relation to adult education participation, the results of the extensive work already done by Höghielm with both municipal adult schools and folk schools, are suggestive of the fecundity of further investigations.

Organizational Factors

Education activities and the extent to which men and women have access to them are often affected by the organizational sponsors of such activities. The internal dynamics of an organization--manifest by its structures, practices, and policies--can leave indelible imprints on what Knowles (1980) refers to as an institutional environment for learning. Focusing on "agent systems," Schroeder (1980) differentiated among several types of agency and institutional sponsors of adult education and correspondingly distinctive forms and purposes of adult education activities. "Type I" agencies, autonomous adult education agencies, devoted entirely to the provision of adult education services, tend to be more responsive to the unique characteristics of adults as learners. "Type II" agencies, juggling a secondary commitment to the education of adult learners with a primary commitment to children and/or youth students, may tend to expect adults to fit molds similar to those of children or youth. Similarly competing demands may characterize "Type III" agencies, for which adult education is an allied function, "Type IV" agencies, for which adult education is regarded as a complementary function, and "Type V" agencies, for which adult education constitutes a function auxiliary to the organization's principal mission. In all but Type I organizations, marginality of the adult education enterprise (Clark, 1956) still impels many adult educators to assume a chronically defensive posture vis-à-vis other functions of the organization.

Another aspect of organizations which has been noted as a determinant of participation (or non-participation) is the notion of institutional barriers (Cross, 1981, p. 99). The institutional barriers perceived by a U.S. national sample study of men and women (Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs, 1974, pp. 45-49) included inflexible schedules, lack of information, strict attendance requirements, red tape to enroll, unbending entrance requirements, and absence of adult-oriented curricula. Drawing on information collected in a Canadian national sample study of adult education participation, the Skill Development Leave Task Force (1983) detailed the following institutional barriers:

> Linkages between formal educational institutions and business, labour, community and learning groups are limited. Age restrictions on entry into educational programs including apprenticeship; lack of credit for previous experience; lockstep hierarchical prerequisite requirements; lack of transfer between programs; and traditional institutional pacing rather than self-paced learning restrict access and progression for adult learners. Institutions tend to offer courses rather than assess and respond to the various learning needs of the adult. Administrative offices and counseling services are not readily available to the part-time adult evening student. Course scheduling generally tends to be traditional; although innovative career accelerated learning programs, weekend colleges, intensive summer programs, end-of-work-day and on-work-site programs, and co-operative programs are beginning to emerge (p. 12).

Looking beyond institutional barriers to the nature of the institutions themselves, a growing number of researchers have begun to draw on open systems and other organizational theories to illuminate adult education phenomena, including participation. The topic has yet to be examined with any adequacy, however. In the third paper which follows, Donaldson not only reviews these past efforts, but he also suggests some new directions which, if followed, may well advance our understanding of adult education participation.

Cultural and Ideological Factors

One component of the ISSTAL Class I external context variables which may yet be demonstrated empirically to exert a significant influence on adult education participation are cultural and ideological factors. The first attempt to drawn on the powers of the state to influence cultural and ideological factors at the level of a national society was exemplified by the Adult Education Committee of the British Ministry of Education (1919) which issued its "1919 Report." More recently, various authors have made such factors, in relation to government policy, a focus of their studies. Thomas (1985, p. 172) has conceptualized the range of responses a society can make to the demands of its citizens for learning throughout their lives.

> (1) It can permit any learning that is not obvious destructive of the society as a whole. Everyone will recognize in this mode the outlines of the common law society.
>
> (2) It can encourage the pursuit and achievement of certain specific objectives associated with the need to learn by putting particular resources at the disposal of the learners, without specifying the manner of use or the particular outcomes. In this mode we can recognize activities which we have traditionally associated with "culture" and increasingly, over the past century in North America, with religion.
>
> (3) The society may utilize the "directive" mode, which brings us into the all too familiar realm of eduction and its attendant wealth and power. We are most familiar with the application of this mode to [the] learning manifestation...[of] the emergence of new generations. However, we need to realize that the directive response on a mass scale is of relatively recent origin.
>
> (4) The final mode of response is one of prevention. In this case, the society finds the particular learning outcomes either repugnant, such as in the present case of forms of pornography, or destructive, such as the non-medical use of drugs, and utilizes its maximum resources of prevention, including the law, to drive them out of the society.

Thomas goes on to explain that the modal responses in democratic societies has been such that the education of adults resembles that offered the emerging generation. The dysfunctional outcomes of such a mode are that "the rich take care of themselves, the middle class is adept at utilizing what public resources there are, and the poor get little or nothing" (p. 171). Perceiving such an eventuality, Lowe (1982, p. 160) argued eloquently that,

> The vital desideratum is that the state should establish suitable machinery for ensuring that the provision is adequate and that neither particular groups of people nor particular regional areas are victims of the kind of discrimination referred to in preceding chapters. Only the state is in a position to take the over-all view, to determine norms of provision, to locate gaps and see that they are filled, to encourage research and development and to exercise regulatory supervision. And only the state is in a position to ensure that non-formal education and independent learning are treated as part of the general provision.

That not everyone agrees with Lowe's analysis was demonstrated by Roberts (1982) who compared the contrasting social philosophies (ideologies) of two Canadian provinces, Alberta and Quebec, on adult education provision. The bulk of his analysis treats the relationships between social philosophies, social structures, needs, and resources. Analyses of the influence of culture, social philosophy (ideology) and public policy on the nature and pattern of adult education participation, though suggested by the ISSTAL model described below, have yet to be conducted.

A Comprehensive Theoretical Framework

If progress is to be made in integrating the four domains discussed in this symposium calling for new directions in theory and research on adult education participation, a comprehensive framework capable of guiding future research and theory-building efforts must be developed. Drawing on the experience of researchers and theorists of the broader phenomenon of social participation (Smith, Macaulay, and Associates, 1980), the author has elsewhere (Cookson, 1986) delineated such a framework, the inter-disciplinary, sequential specificity, time-allocation, life-span (ISSTAL) model. That model identifies the dependent variable of adult education participation as the consequent of six classes of independent variables: (I) external context, (II) social background, (III) personality, (IV) attitudinal dispositions, (V) retained information, (VI) definition of the situation.

Within those six classes, there is allowance for more than individual participant characteristics. Class I encompasses aspects of the environment external to both the individual and participation situation. Hence, both the characteristics of the sponsoring organization and the larger societal ideology or policy structures would be accounted for within that class. Classes II, III, IV, and V embody solely social psychological attributes. Class VI, however, embodies the characteristics of the specific situation attendant to participation--only as perceived (defined) by the individual participant. To include the characteristics of the situation itself--not just its perception--another dimension to the model would need to be added. It can thus be seen that, with only slight revision, each of the four concepts included in the title of this symposium--adult learners, program, organization, and society--can be accommodated within the ISSTAL model. In exploring options for joint research across international boundaries, some thought might be given to studying the phenomenon of adult education participation in light of selected aspects and dimensions of the model.

REFERENCES

Adult Education Committee, Ministry of Reconstruction. (1919). "Final Report." London: His Majesty's Stationery Office.

Carp, A., Peterson, R., and Roelfs, P. (1974). "Adult learning interests and experiences." In K. P. Cross, J. R. Valley, and Associates. Planning non-traditional programs. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Clark, B. R. (1956). Adult education in transition. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Cookson, P. (1986). "A framework for theory and research on adult education participation." Adult Education Quarterly, 36, 3, pp. 130-141.

Cross, K. P. (1981). Adults as learners. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Jensen, G. (1964). "Social psychology and adult education practice." In G. Jensen, A. A. Liveright, and W. Hallenbeck (Eds.). Adult education: Outlines of an Emerging Field of University Study. Washington, D.C.: Adult Education Association of the U.S.A.

Knowles, M. S. (1980). The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy. New York: Cambridge.

Lowe, J. (1982). Education of adults: A global perspective. Second edition. Paris: Unesco.

Roberts, H. (1982) Culture and adult education: A study of Alberta and Quebec. Edmonton: University of Alberta Press.

Schroeder, W. L. (1980). "Typology of adult learning systems." In Peters, J. M. and Associates. Building an effective adult education enterprise. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, pp. 41-77.

Skill Development Leave Task Force. (1983). Learning a living in Canada: Policy options for the nation. (Volume II of a Report to the Minister of Employment and Immigration Canada.) Ottawa: Minister of Supply and Services Canada.

Smith, D. H. Macaulay, J., and Associates (Eds.). Participation in social and political activities. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Thomas, A. (1985). "Government and adult education in Canada." In W. M. Rivera and S. M. Walker (Eds.). Lifelong learning research conference proceedings. College Park: The University of Maryland Department of Agricultural and Extension Education, pp. 171-175.

STOCKHOLM INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
ROBERT HÖGHIELM. AERC/SCUTREA/CASAE
conference in 1988 (Leeds).

GROUP DYNAMICS INHERENT IN INSTRUCTIONAL SETTINGS

I. INTRODUCTION

Adult Education can be characterized as a practical and normative discipline, in which the purpose of research is to evolve programs which have the most likelihood of promoting learning situations in which behavior changes may best be brought about. The stress on practicality and the needs of the field have, no doubt, determed which problems have been selected as legitimate for research. That has caused a lack of balance between practice-oriented research and discipline-oriented research, where the purpose is to develop and test theories and lay the necessary foundations for applied research. Adult education is considered a normative discipline, in that it is concerned with deliberate attempts to help adults develop in certain ways (Verner, 1978). Thus it is a distinctive social activity, and a normative one as it involves primordial value judgments. However, we have to remember that educational systems are designed to serve, not only an inner function, the achievement of educational and instructional goals, but also an important external function, e.g. socialization and legitimization. In a democracy educational systems in practice serve as important instruments with which to provide norms and values representative for such a society. However, as value judgments rarely take into account the relationship between the internal and the external functions, they cannot be used as the only base for developing adult education theory. Probably such a theory will have to start with the educational process as it exists in reality, and not from what someone thinks it ought to be. The neglect of adult education process as it exists in reality and, often, a too narrow focus on psychological aspects have resulted in an inadequate conceptualization of adult education phenomena.

To use education as a way to develop and change the society is relatively a new idea. The pedagogical history of ideology shows us that education for a very long time was given the role to keep and consolidate the established society. When Sweden became industrialized -together with a general optimistic view on development -

the idea gradually emerged that the society would benefit more if knowledge was provided in a efficient way but provide it to as many groups as possible. That spirit was behind the "educational progressivism" which colored the Swedish educational reforms after 1945. Also the field of adult education was included in that philosophy. The study circle organizations got 50% of their costs covered by the State in 1947. Before that time they had to rely on their relationships with different people's movements. An important step by the State was to start to integrate values which previously had characterized many of the Swedish People's movements (religious-, temperance- and workers movements). Generally it is now more than 15 years ago since adult education became a central question in the country's educational policy. During this period adult educational reforms have been carried out in different ways.

Since the second world war the State and the Society gradually have taken a more active role in financing general adult education in Sweden. Only recently (in the end of the 1970's) the big enterprises have become very active in providing in-service training programs for their employees. These activities, however, are often carried out in collaboration with the competence - given (public) adult education i.e. municipal adult education (komvux) and labor training courses (AMU-courses). - In 1970 the Swedish Parliament agreed about the two main objectives of all Swedish adult education, which are as follows:

#redistributive, i.e. to use adult education for equalization of the Swedish society

#service political, i.e. to provide the labor market with welleducated workers but also respond to the individual's educational needs.

A key question in all kind of adult education is the process of instruction. My own empirical studies on the process of instruction in komvux (1978-1982) showed following main results: (The results are based on 240 classroom-observations, 30 tape-recorded lessons, a great number questionnaires etc.)

# Most of all komvux teachers teaching mathematics and swedish at compulsory school level during the school year concerned were not working in accordance with the teaching ideals formulated by the andragogists, i.e. ideals officially recommended by Government and Parliament.

Komvux teaching, clearly, is more dominated by the transmission of facts than youth education, at least where compulsory school courses are concerned. In actual fact the teachers played the part of living textbooks. Moreover, as has already been observed, statements of fact by the participants are confined to a small number of very active participants who display "teacher behavior". With the exception of these active participants, one finds no sign whatsoever of the andragogical spirit which ought to permeate teaching.

The question is whether it is practically possible for teaching to be permeated by the andragogical ideals. The major difference, however, between Adult education and Youth education is that the latter is mainly occupied by **socializing** the pupils into society, while the former can be used as a tool to **change** the participants **social situation.**

2. THEORETICAL CONSEQUENCES

My research results from swedish municipal education can be explained from a frame factor standpoint which underline the importance of external factors (see e.g. Dahllöf 1971 and Bernstein & Lundgren 1983). These are materialized through three mechanisms. The first mechanism, **educational programs,** is expressed as a goal system, exemplified by syllabi and teaching materials, which governs the educational situation. The second mechanism, termed **administrative reality,** imposes constitutional, organizational, and physical constraints on the educational situation. The third mechanism, **judicial requirements,** serves a regularity function, in that it sets down rules that determine the conditions under which education will occur (e.g. teacher qualifications, grading systems, attendance policies). An understanding of the origins and power of these three mechanisms, which represent forces in the broader society, when combined with the psychological factors of instructors and participants, provides a more complete picture of the instructional process than typically considered in adult education research (see also Höghielm, 1986).

These restrictions have been established on a central level which means that teachers and participants in swedish municipal adult education have few possibilities to influence their own situation (i.e. in competence-given adult education).

The teacher's interpretation of the framework has a significant impact on what type of teaching strategy is chosen. If the teacher believes that the task is to get as many participants as possible to cover as much basic knowledge as possible, then the participants who require the most tutoring time will "set the pace". The teacher can be forced to lower the goal or leave out units because of limited time and teaching material. A short-coming with this analyses, however, is that the contextual frame-work are given all "credit" for the teachers' limited space to "maneuver" in the process of instruction.

The psychological factors of teachers and participants are also important "determinants" for how the process of instruction really turns out. This is probably more important in adult educational settings which are **not competence-giving** in a strict formal way. In this context you should probably consider the teacher as a **fourth** "framing factor". This factor seems to have been thoroughly explored, considering the long tradition of research on teachers. That kind of research has, however, been mainly interested in the teacher as a primary factor and not one among several factors of importance for how the educational practice will materialize. (See e.g. Gage, 1972 and Rosenshine, 1983).

In this circumstance von Wright's analyses of problems which are related to "Determinism and the Study of Man" can be of some guidance (von Wright, 1983). From a socio-philosophical perspective von Wright argues that human behavior can not be predicted in terms of natural laws but only in terms of probabilities. The determinants of Man which von Wright uses could be labeled as both psychological and sociological. Von Wright speaks about internal and external determinants.

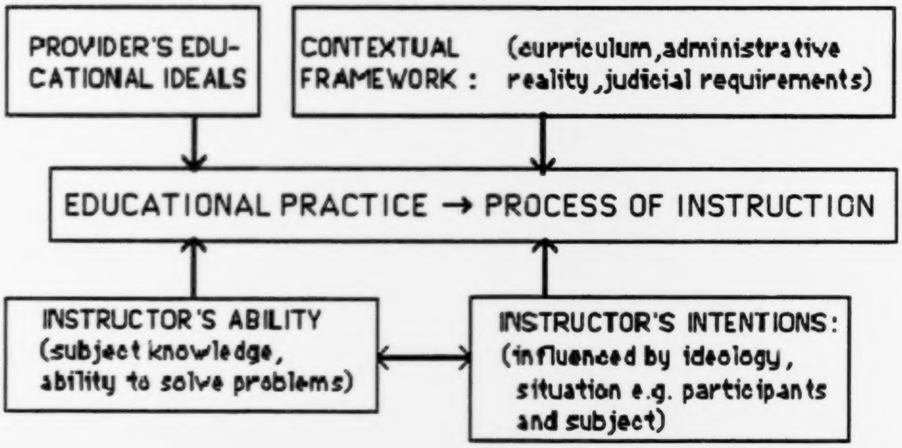
The final point for human action is the **intentions** and the **epistemic** attitude the person has. The intentions can be viewed as a more short-term determinant while the person's social role is a long-term determinant. Besides these two aspects von Wright also introduces the concept **ability** as an important determinant for human action. The discussion can be transferred to the teacher's professional role in a certain educational program. The teacher's role i.e. what the teacher is expected to do because of normative pressure from school tradition, syllabi etc is one important determinant for acting but others are subject knowledge and intentions. Von Wright, however, means that "ability" is a shortcoming:

> "They delimit the 'horizon' or 'domain' or 'range' of a man's freedom to act. This range will then wax and wane with variations in ability" (von Wright, 1983, p48).

Because von Wright speaks generally about determinants for human behavior he regards "ability" as a limitation. But if you apply this kind of thinking on the instructors' abilities, i.e. their subject knowledge and capacity to solve problems, the ability could be regarded as a resource and the contradiction of limiting "actions". - The three components (instructor role as perceived in a certain educational program, intentions and ability) are dependent on the contextual framework.

The discussion implies that the "teacher factor" in all kinds of adult education - where the contextual framework is not very strict - grows in importance. The situation can be summarized in figure 1.

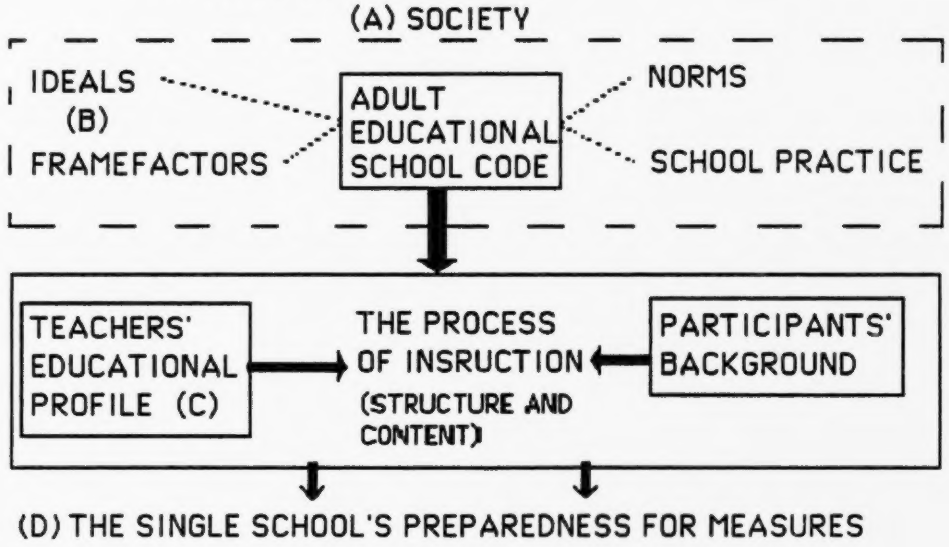
Figure 1. Factors to consider when studying the process of instruction.


PROVIDER'S EDUCATIONAL IDEALS
CONTEXTUAL FRAMEWORK : (curriculum, administrative reality, judicial requirements)
EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE → PROCESS OF INSTRUCTION
INSTRUCTOR'S ABILITY (subject knowledge, ability to solve problems)
INSTRUCTOR'S INTENTIONS: (influenced by ideology, situation e.g. participants and subject)

Collective ideals of instruction are found in the top left box while the right top box consists components which are out of the individual instructor's control from a pure frame factorial point of view. The both lower boxes contain what Lundgren calls psychological conceptual apparatus (see Lundgren 1977, p38).

A short coming with figure 1 is that it outlines which factors on a general level have an impact on the educational practice, materialized into the process of instruction. The instructors as a "fourth" framing factor can, however, better be visiulized by introducing the concept **school (unit) code.** Research from youth education shows that the school code has a decisive meaning on the "educational spirit" at a certain school. (see e.g. Rutter et al, 1979, and Arfwedsson & Lundman 1984). The school code does not exist in a conscious, explicit way, which staff at a school can react on. It is rather a product of or an aggregate of (changeable) conceptions about what is feasible to do within the school. A particularization is made in figure 2 of the more general approach outlined in the previous figure.

Figure 2. Relations between adult educational school code and factors of importance for the process of instruction


(A) SOCIETY
IDEALS
(B)
FRAMEFACTORS
ADULT EDUCATIONAL SCHOOL CODE
NORMS
SCHOOL PRACTICE
TEACHERS' EDUCATIONAL PROFILE (C)
THE PROCESS OF INSRUCTION
(STRUCTURE AND CONTENT)
PARTICIPANTS' BACKGROUND
(D) THE SINGLE SCHOOL'S PREPAREDNESS FOR MEASURES

The left part of the figure can be recognized from figure 1. Ideals and framefactors are external influences outside the process of instruction. In the same box the concepts *norms* and *school practice* are included. These are referring to the single school unit's activities. It can be e.g. how one usually recruits new participants or cope with ethical questions. If both aspects are considered, you can assimilate them into an adult educational school code. This code can shift from school to school. Finally, both the teacher's educational profile and the participants have an impact on the process of instruction.

The weaker the conceptual framework are, the stronger impact from the instructors "framework" i.e. subject knowledge, ability to solve problems and intentions (influenced by ideology, situations e.g. participants and knowledge).

3. SOME FINDINGS

I have compared instruction in swedish municipal education, komvux, (strict framework) and folk schools (loose framework) by using the same kind of classroom observations. - Both are adult educational providers which have a general ambition to recruite neglected groups in society and also have programs which give access to higher education. - In both cases a modified observation technique was used, similar to Flanders'. (Flanders, 1970). (However, no distinction was made between so called teacher and students categories.)

The material from municipal adult education had been collected previously (1978-1980), while data from folk schools was collected recently (spring 1987). The results are based on instructions in mathe-matics and 'mother tongue' (swedish). Generally the results showed that participants from folk schools contribute in a more concentrated way compare to komvux' students. - Further on, the folkschool's participants have a tendency to carry out arguments i.e. longer dialogues, while the komvux' participants contribute sparsely. In both mathematics and swedish do the folk school participants provide more subject related information and put more questions compare to the komvux participants. The latter participants are more often confronted to questions. - To summarize: the folk school participants are more active and do also have more impact during the lessons compare to the komvux students.

A reasonable explanation is that the differences can be related to the looser conceptual framework which is in force for the folk school. Instructors in komvux both feel, and in fact are, more 'framed' by the much more strict framework which is decided for komvux. In folk schools the instructors feel more free to operate the lessons in a freer way, because they have more freedom to decide e.g. how much time can be spent on certain units. Another important explanation can be that folk school teachers are more committed to ideals which underline a more andragogical way of instruction. - My continuing research work is designed to more precisely elucidate these explanations.

REFERENCES

Arfwedson,G. & Lundman,L(1984) **Skolpersonal och skolkoder (School Staff and Codes)** Stockholm:Liber Utbildningsförlaget.

Bernstein,B & Lundgren,U(1983) **Makt och Kontroll (Power and Control).** Stockholm: Liberförlag.

Dahllöf,U (1971) **Ability Grouping, Content Validity and Curriculum Process Analyses.** New York: Teachers College Press.

Flanders,N.(1970) **Analyzing Teaching Behavior.** Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley

Gage,N.L. (1972) **Teacher Effectiveness and Teacher Education. The Search for a Scientific Basis.** Palo Alto California, Pacific Books,Publishers.

Höghielm,R(1986) **Ideals and Reality in Competence-Giving Adult Education: An Examination of Swedish Municipal Education.** *Adult Education Quarterly,Volume 4, Summer 1986, 187-201.*

Lundgren,U(1977) **Model Analyses of Pedagogical Processes.** Stockholm CWK Gleerup, Liber Läromedel.

Rosenshine,B (1983) **Instructional Functions.** *The Elementary School Journal. March 1983.*University of Chicago Press.

Rutter,M., Maughan,B Mortimore,P, Ouston,J(1979). **Fifteen Thousand Hours. Secondary Schools and their Effects on Children.** London: Open Books

Verner, C (1978) **Some Reflections on Graduate Professional Education in Adult Education.** *The Canadian Journal of Higher Education, 8:2, 39-48.*

Von Wright(1983) **Practical Reason**

Symposium Title: "Conceptualizing Change and Related Adult Learning in Adult Education Research"

Chairperson and Presenter: James A. Farmer, Jr., Associate Professor of Continuing Education, College of Education, University of Illinois, 1310 S. 6th Street, Champaign, IL, U.S.A. 61820.

Presenter: H.K. (Morris) Baskett, Professor and Associate Dean, Faculty of Continuing Education, University of Calgary, 2500 University Dr. N.W., Calgary, Alberta, Canada T2N 1N4.

Presenter: Helen S. Farmer, Professor of Educational Psychology, College of Education, University of Illinois, 1310 S. 6th Street, Champaign, IL, U.S.A. 61820.

Presenter: Peter Jarvis, Sr. Lecturer in the Education of Adults, Department of Educational Studies, University of Surrey, Guilford, Surrey, United Kingdom GU2-5XH.

Abstract: Four researchers with diverse backgrounds describe the theoretical frameworks that they employ in conceptualizing change and related adult learning in adult education research. They show how their conceptual frameworks lead to research paradigms that overcome weaknesses in popular paradigms.

Introduction:

How change and related adult learning are conceptualized in designing adult education research can have major effects on what types of data are collected and how findings are interpreted. A relatively sophisticated form of data analysis cannot overcome the limiting effects of a relatively weak conceptual base in adult education research.

This symposium focuses on how different theoretical frameworks contribute to the design of adult education research. The four presenters were selected because they all have experience in dealing with the topic. Yet they do so from quite different perspectives: country of origin (i.e., Canadian, United Kingdom, and United States); gender (i.e., female, male), and/or field/discipline (i.e., psychology, adult education).

Each presenter was asked to address the following questions from his or her perspective: (a) What theory base(s) do you use in adult education research design to conceptualize change and related adult learning? (b) What do you see as the main advantages and disadvantages of that approach? (c) What other questions and concerns do you have regarding how change and related adult learning are conceptualized in adult education research?

More specifically, each presenter was encouraged to show how the use of the theory base(s) he or she uses allows the researcher to handle one or more of the following potential problems:

(a) Avoiding the assumption that more change and/or learning is

necessarily better;
(b) Interpreting zero change associated with adult learning;
(c) Doing justice to both intentional and unintentional change;
(d) Handling interactional effects between change and adult learning;
(e) Doing justice to and adequately classifying forms of adult learning that are different from the standard ones.

The first presenter focuses on his theory base which provides not only an explanation for change but also a framework for investigating its occurance. The other three presenters describe their theory bases and illustrate how these relate to research methods. Excerpts from each presentation follow.

(1) Peter Jarvis, "A Socio-Psychological Learning Theory Approach with an Empirical Base"

Learning occurs in society whenever there is a gap (disjuncture) between people's biographies and their current experiences. When no disjuncture occurs, no learning usually results. By contrast, the gap between biography and experience can be self- or other-induced. The type of learning may depend upon the reasons why and the situation in which it was induced. Underlying all of this it should be recognized that social and individual changes occur continually so that the gap between biography and experience is a frequent occurence. Perhaps this is more so now than ever before in history, since industrial, technological society has created a norm of rapid social change. New information and regular exposure to it also help to create disjuncture-producing situations in which learning becomes a lifelong phenomenon.

This adult education researcher draws upon a mixture of theory bases in conceptualizing change and related adult learning in adult education research. Central to his approach is socio-psychological learning theory with an empirical base. People have to learn how to cope with the environment. Learning is inextricably intertwined with being because it is part of the human condition. The body of learning, which has become (during the earlier years of development) the mind of the human person, can create an harmonious situation with the world which enables people to act in an unthinking manner. It is tested by experience. For much of the time it works, and behavior can be taken for granted. But this body of knowledge is not total, nor is it sufficient for every contingency in the process of living. Suddenly an experience is problematic. For a variety of reasons the store of knowledge is insufficient to cope with the world.. This is disjuncture between biography and experience, and this cannot be taken for granted.

Learning is, therefore, placed in a much more fundamental context by this researcher than in some of the theories that educationalists have adopted. The disjuncture between biography and experience keeps recurring. Traumatic events bring the question into the open - Why has this happened to me? A process of questioning ensues, a process that continues intermittently throughout life. This experience of disjuncture may occur naturally because a person has an experience which is novel, or it may occur because the novel experience is induced by an outsider, like a teacher, or even because it is self induced.

This is the inevitable paradox. Without this disjuncture there could be no learning, and without learning there could be no mind nor self. Yet always the human being is seeking to habitualize experience so that behavior can occur in a taken-for-granted manner. This then is a paradox of being human- that mind and self are learned as the human being is both being and becoming.

As a result of this approach to learning, it is possible to recognise twelve different responses to a potential learning experience. Some of these responses do NOT result in change but rather in conformity. These different responses include three types of non-learning, three of non-reflective learning, and six of reflective learning, of which three are conformist. The reason for this is that we learn through interaction to conform. We also acquire the same language and the same perspectives. Indeed, people feel happier when they conform, but then this has been part of their socialization.

The thesis of this paper, then, is that, because humans have no instinctive behavioral patterns, there is always the potentiality of disjuncture between biography and experiences and that learning is a response to that disjuncture. Moreover, this is the very process through which the mind and the self were actually formed.

(2) H.K. (Morris) Baskett, "A Phenomonological Approach Using Attribution Theory"

Change and related learning can be conceptualized in adult education research in terms of four themes. First, learning involves the attribution of meaning. Second, attribution of meaning can occur before, during, and/or after change. Third, meaning is socially mediated. Fourth, individual receptivity and environmental opportunity are preconditions for learning and change. Essentially, these themes draw from an interpretist paradigm, which is in conflict with the generally held linear and positivist paradigm. By embracing this framework, phenomena such as zero change, transformation, reframing, and reflection-as-learning may be accomodated. This appraoch is not dependent on traditional forms of instruction having occured. It seeks to identify and understand the effect of critical variables that are beyond the control of the educator as well as those controlled by the educator.

This perspective focuses the researcher on meaning as experienced by the individual subject. It therefore moves one into the realm of naturalistic inquiry, and it dictates the kind of methodologies for data collection and analysis which are most appropriate. This researcher assumes that there is dynamic interaction between the researcher's world view, explicit theory, general methodological approach, specific methods, and the nature and definition of the research problem. Each influences and changes the other. As a result, there are often vast differences between initial research design and conceptualizaton and the final product. One must, therefore, perceive any research endeavour as constantly evolving and changing, rather than static.

This researcher's personal inclination is individualistic and interpretist. He leans toward "constructivist" interpretations and less toward structural-functionalist and conflict orientations. He undertands "learning" to involve the attribution of meaning and significance to experience. Learning occurs internally, although it is socially and environmentally mediated. "Change" is the behavioral manifestation of learning. New "learning" can occur without "intake" of new information or ideas. In essence, internal "restructuring" has occurred. In the act of reflecting, one can make new meaning out of previous experiences. No new experiences have occurred, but the meaning of those experiences to the person has changed. No change has occurred in the behavior, but the individual has learned something. The person's "reality" has become altered.

By using the approach described above, one can understand why what participants learn in adult or continuing education is often somewhat different than the "learning objectives" devised by the program designers and resource persons. In effect, each participant has placed different significance or meaning on the "same" experiences in the program. Thus, "unintentional" learning has occurred.

If meaning, as understood by the learner, is to be examined, then the instruments or measures must be able to be flexible and situationally directed as well as be able to probe deeply and gain contextuality. Generally, use of pieces such as journals are favored over large-scale questionnaires, especially during early stages of the research. Similarly, because there is little in the way of substantive theory of how professionals learn, much of this researcher's work is devoted to theory development, or the "context of discovery."

(3) Helen S. Farmer, "A Longitudinal Approach Based on Social Learning Theory"

Some research questions concerned with change and related learning in adults lend themselves best to longitudinal studies. For example, if the question concerns aspects of a lifelong learning process such as career development, data collected at one point in time can, at best, be used to weakly predict changed perspectives and behaviors in the future. Further, if learning is linked to identifiable stages of development, change is expected to be nonlinear, that is, some changes will be growthful, others not, and the concept of no change (zero change) developmentally may in some cases be viewed positively.

For her particular research question, "Why do women contribute less to the arts and sciences, compared to men?" this researcher has found cross-sectional evidence that women change their self-concept and their motivation to achieve in a downward direction during the years following adolescence. In order to understand and explain this phenomenon, this researcher suggests that research studies should begin with women during adolescence and continue throughout their productive years.

A major challenge in longitudinal reseach is how to assess change both at one point in time and across several time points. Social learning theory as defined by Albert Bandura provides a theoretial basis for the former. Social learning theory views learning and related behavior as resulting from three sets of interacting influences: (a) background or given influences such as gender, ethnicity, and ability; (b) psychological or personal self-concept factors such as attitudes, beliefs, and previous experiences; and (c) environmental or social factors in society that affect the individual. According to Bandura, explanations of learning have generally favored linear causal models emphasizing either environmental or internal factors. In contrast, social learning theory views learning as involving a continuous reciprocal interaction between behavioral, cognitive, and environmental influences. A statistical package known as LISREL VI uses structural equation modeling, a form of path analysis, which permits assessment of interaction effects. As noted earlier, social learning theory views learning and related change as coming about through the interaction of persons with their environment.

The longitudinal approach permits the researcher to report differences without making judgments about whether "more is better." Social learning theory does not impose value judgments on change data. The researcher may, however, build value assumptions into the model investigated. The subjects themselves may hold different values, and these can also be assessed.

For many of the variables measured in this researcher's model, zero-order change over time may be desirable. For example, zero change in a positive self-concept or a supportive environment would both be interpreted positively. By intentional and unintentional change in adult learning and behavior this researcher means those changes the person planned or expected versus those changes that the person did not plan or expect. The interview is the best vehicle for assessing unintentional change.

(4) James A. Farmer, Jr., "A Multi-Theory Based Approach"

This researcher uses several theory bases in designing adult education research which focuses on change and related adult learning. These include: (a) social psychology; (b) cognitive psychology; and (c) structural functionalism. From his perspective, no single theory base has been found sufficient, in and of itself, for such inquiry. Each of these theory bases contributes differentially. Used together, they tend to complement each other.

This reseacher used these theory bases in designing a naturalistic study in which data were collected from 2,014 adults on significant developmental, organizational, and/or societal changes and related learning. What has been referred to variously as the elaboration model, the interpretation method, or the Lazarfeld method was used in analyzing the data and interpreting findings.

In keeping with a socio-psychological approach to studying open systems, this reseacher looks first at outcomes and then identifies what contexts, inputs, and processes are associated with specific outcomes. Doing so permits focusing on specific changes, which are not defined merely as a function of education or learning. Then, through statisitical analysis, factors are identified that associate positively or negatively at a statistically significant level with those changes as well as with various forms of zero change (i.e., high to high; low to low).

In using such an approach, the research does not merely ask "How much adult education and/or adult learning has taken place?" or "How much change has taken place?" or "Did what was intended take place?" and then concludes that the answers tell us what type(s) of adult learning are "best." Rather, in keeping with a structural-functional perspective, data are collected about: (a) the functionality of experienced changes, as defined by the subject; (b) associated variables including learning activities; and (c) how the subject sees (a) and (b) to be related. Moreover, in keeping with a cognitive psychological perspective, data are collected on the meaningfulness of change and related learning. No one form or mode of learning is taken to be inherently more meaningful than other forms and modes of learning.

This approach avoids concluding that zero change is necessarily dysfunctional. For example,a person was found to be doing very well at a previous point in time, experienced a traumatic change, accomodated to it due to certain learning activities, and is still doing very well."Doing very well" previously and still measures as "zero change." It would be unfair and inappropriate, however, necessarily to conclude that the learning activities and adaptive efforts associated with such "zero change" were ineffectual or that such "zero change" was not beneficial.

If one stays within a standard paradigm (such as those developed by Freire, Houle, or Knowles) in one's research, one is unlikely to collect data about non-standard forms of adult learning and how they associate with change. This researcher adapted Platt's "strong inference" in order to design data collecting instruments that permit the subjects to indicate: (a) which alternative form(s) of change they experienced; and (b) which alternative form(s) of learning they used and under what conditions. He found that some of the more functional approaches to learning were other than the standard ones because they consisted of sequences of standard approaches or "hybrids," in which elements from two or more standard approaches were used.

KNOWLEDGE GENERATION AND EXCHANGE IN ADULT EDUCATION

Barbara M. Florini, Associate Professor

Elizabeth C. Oddy, Information Transfer Specialist

Rae W. Rohfeld, Associate Professor

Anne Shelly, Senior Research Associate, CIS and CASE

Daniel Vertrees, Assistant Director, Computer and Data Integration

Syracuse University Kellogg Project

Abstract

Five members of a multidisciplinary research project discuss initiatives designed to increase access to research materials and enhance information exchange among adult educators. The project, funded by the Kellogg Foundation, will generate knowledge applicable to many fields.

This symposium brings together members of a collaborative research team concerned with increasing access to research materials and enhancing the communication of knowledge among adult educators. Team members bring perspectives from computer science, information science, educational communications, adult education, and history. The project, supported by the Kellogg Foundation, will generate knowledge potentially applicable to many fields.

A central focus of the Kellogg Project is the Syracuse University Adult and Continuing Education Research Collection, a collection of manuscript materials, pamphlets, newsletters, photographs, tapes, and other materials. During the course of the project, adult education scholars and practioners will conduct historical and related research in the collections, and their research processes will, in turn, be the subjects of research by computer and information science scholars. The Collection, which serves as a major data base, is being put into an optical disk system. Work is underway to discover what impact this technology has on research and how such systems can be most effectively designed to meet researcher's needs. The logic-based software being incorporated into the computerized system will help researchers uncover relationships among people, ideas, and organizations over time in the adult education field. It will also enable the team to build a knowledge base related to how researchers work with the material.

In order to enhance communication within the field, networks of adult educators are being developed. One such network is AEDNET, an international ADULT EDUCATION NETWORK, which is computer-mediated utilizing BITNET and other international, mainframe-based connections. On the other hand, the International Information Sharing Network (IISN) is not dependent on computer-aided communication. It is being created by an information counselor who links enquirers to appropriate sources of information (human and print) and also studies the nature of the inquiries and the success of the linkages made.

In applying technology to research and communication, it is essential that the technology be manageable by non-technologically-oriented users. As the work continues, the project team will use focus groups, participant observation, and other means to study user needs and to evaluate the effectiveness of the access and communication tools being developed.

USER-ORIENTED INFORMATION RETRIEVAL

Barbara M. Florini

The research focus group enquiry is based on the premise that any organized knowledge base should be accessible in such a way that investigators can focus on their research questions rather than on coping with the storage and retrieval system. What then can we do to make our optical-disk based archival collection attractive to and easy to use by investigators of varying skills, backgrounds, and expertise? To begin identifying the kinds of things we need to consider, we conducted a series of interviews with likely users of the collection, asking them 1) to describe their research processes from the idea stage and 2) to discuss their perceptions of current research trends and topics. We began with researchers rather than practitioners for two reasons. As of now, we are not certain as to the direct relationship between the materials in the collection and practice. Secondly, researchers of varied experience were more readily available.

Those interviewed ranged in experience from advanced doctoral students to faculty whose well-established research programs are documented by scholarly publications. We initially planned to interview the volunteers in small groups constituted on the basis of the similar levels of experience of the people. Since we were seeking a richness of information, we felt people in small groups would stimulate each others' thinking. In two instances, because of scheduling considerations, we conducted individual interviews. The remaining people were put in two groups of three or four. One group consisted of doctoral candidates and people with recent Ph.Ds. The second group included more experienced researchers.

Some suggestions from a preliminary look at the data include the following: It is important that investigators find it easy to browse and flip through the electronic system. Several mentioned the role serendipity plays in research. As one person said, "You go up for one book and it's the book two down from it that you happen to see the title you want." Also, browsing is a way of developing perspective and evaluating one's initial research idea. Finally, scanning helps identify key names and concepts that you can then focus in on.

An additional group interview was conducted with three librarians experienced in assisting people with archival research. We felt their experiences would provide additional perspectives on research processes. In the near future we hope to extend this research activity to adult education practitioners, researchers from other disciplines, and to investigators from different cultural backgrounds. These three populations are all potential users of the optical disk system. We want a system that is as equally accessible to all users as we can make it.

This part of the presentation will present an analysis of the data gathered to date and discuss the implications of the findings.

ADAPTING ADULT EDUCATION RESOURCES TO THE NEEDS OF USERS

Elizabeth Carley Oddy

An overall goal of the Kellogg Project is to enhance availability of adult education information, making it accessible to those who need it, in a form and medium that they can use easily and conveniently. In this situation, new technology functions as a tool, facilitating enhancement.

Robert S. Taylor's value-added model of information systems would describe our function as adding "adaptability" to systems. We are working in the gap, known as "negotiation space", between existing information resources and the people who could make use of those resources. One can imagine trying to narrow the gap from either of the two poles -- by incorporating more flexible elements within the formal system, or by giving users new tools, to give them more powerful searching strategies for understanding the formal system and its capabilities. Within the Kellogg Project, we are approaching the problem from both directions. For purposes of this presentation, I will limit my remarks to two Project components, the optical system and the International Information-Sharing Network (IISN).

The optical system, designed for improved access to records of historical interest, emphasizes the development of a new tool for researchers. Special effort has been exerted to make the system as intuitive and easy to use as possible, incorporating an interface suited to human work habits. Since both facsimile images of the documents themselves and searchable information about those documents will be available on-line, researchers will be able to alternate between two very different approaches to the data: searching for specific contents, and browsing among potentially interesting documents, giving serendipity a chance to play an important role.

The IISN links adult education practitioners, researchers and policy makers from many countries into a network that depends on postal service rather than computer technology. This information counseling system is made adaptable by incorporating a person, the counselor, at the user's end of the "formal" system (broadly defined). The counselor can help users to frame ("negotiate") queries, to put them into language understood by formal systems; can tailor search results to the specific needs of individuals, can link a wide variety of people and ideas in ways not specified a priori, and can develop a long term trust-based relationship with clientele.

These two examples point out two of the ways the Kellogg Project at Syracuse is trying to build bridges between information resources in adult education and the widespread audience for that information, bringing the poles together into an adaptable, useful whole.

Reference

Taylor, Robert S. (1986). Value-added processes in information systems. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

FACILITATING HISTORICAL RESEARCH

Rae Wahl Rohfeld

As the historian on the Kellogg project, my major role is to develop a focus on the history of adult education and foster the perspectives, understanding, and skills necessary for conducting historical research. Some aspects of developing historical studies in which we have been engaged include learning and communicating about our special collections, planning with other research institutions how to cooperatively document the history of the field, and exploring the applications of computer technologies to historical research. A unique part of my job is conveying the approaches, methods, and concerns of researchers to those who are designing the optical disk storage and retrieval system for our research collection. The big question I ask as a researcher is, "Why will I want to use this system? How will it make my work easier and better"?

We have spent a lot of time talking about the kinds of descriptions and indexes we will have and what the best ways are to help researchers locate the relevant documents. We think that the collection descriptions, along with the full-text indexing and the logical connections that will be available in our system, will enable people to locate documents efficiently and effectively. We are also making sure that they can find them again if they need to verify data or obtain information for citations.

Generally, historians go to archives and libraries knowing which collections they want to use. They have identified them by preliminary research which can include reading in the field and talking to other scholars. The indexing features of our system should be valuable to scholars in their preliminary research phases when they are looking for information on a general topic. As they read through the images of the items they select, they may identify new names or terms for which they will want to return to the index. This flexibility may exceed that of existing research methods.

Although the optical disk technology has been viewed as the major electronic research tool we are developing, AEDNET, the new adult education electronic network, provides to historians the opportunity to belong to an enlarged community of scholars. Electronic forums enable scholars to discuss research issues and share information sources. AEDNET hooks on to the front part of the research process by providing the personal network that scholars use to work out their questions and identify key sources. The realization of how AEDNET can help in this regard is an example of how the Project grows and takes on new directions as we discover more about how we work and what tools facilitate that work.

THE KELLOGG APPLICATION PROGRAM IN LOGIC PROGRAMMING

Anne Shelly

This research is focused on the cognitive processes employed by adult-education scholars as they manipulate the knowledge of their field, especially that knowledge contained in documents of the field, to generate new knowledge. Using the results of this research, we intend to develop a knowledge-based system employing mechanized deduction techniques for user access to the Adult and Continuing Education Research Collection.

Data in this study include: 1) interviews with adult-education researchers on the characteristics of their research process, 2) interviews and observations with researchers using the Collection, 3) archivists' formal shelf list descriptions of the catalogued portion of the Collection, 4) researcher-generated relations describing one uncatalogued sub-collection on adult educator Howard McClusky, 5) background information on the persons, places, and ideas relevant to adult education as a field of study, and 6) system logs of interactive sessions between scholars and the logic system.

Using a modification of Znaniecki's (1934) analytic-induction approach to analysis, two working hypotheses are being tested and refined:

1. Adult-education scholars preface their research of a particular topic with an induction-based conceptualization process. During this phase, they manipulate a personal knowledge base composed of public and private meanings for concepts of the field, and of private, tentative meanings from which new ideas might be generated. This phase may be characterized as an interaction between scholar and documents examined by the scholar. The scholar's perception of what constitutes a pertinent document is influenced by the ebb and flow of public, private and tentative meanings in his/her knowledge base, and the documents influence the ways the researcher shapes his/her knowledge base (i.e., what meanings become promising structures for a topic of study).

2. Scholars use an evolving language to represent the constructs of adult education. The most useful tool for document examination (i.e., that which facilitates generating the promising structures for a topic of study) is one in which the context of this language is explicitly represented: 1) as facts which state historical and current descriptions of adult education as a field, and 2) as rules which state commonly understood relationships among these descriptions.

Based on these working hypotheses, we are developing a prototype system. The intent of the program is to document the process by which scholars manipulate the public knowledge base, express the private knowledge base, and combine the two to generate new knowledge.

Reference

Znaniecki, F. (1934). The method of sociology. New York: Farrar and Rinehart.

AEDNET
ADULT EDUCATION NETWORK
USING COMPUTER ENHANCED COMMUNICATION FOR KNOWLEDGE EXCHANGE AND ACQUISITION

Daniel R. Vertrees

AEDNET is a network comprised of adult education professionals from throughout the world. AEDNET can be described as a single discipline network in a multinational setting. International networking is a reality within AEDNET. With connections with individuals from Sweden to Australia; from New Brunswick to Chile a feeling of community has developed among those "on-line." AEDNET supports a philosophy of equity, equal access, low cost and collegiality.

Technically speaking, AEDNET is, at present, a LISTSERV address at Syracuse University using connections on BITNET, the INTERNET, UUCP, Australian Computer Science Network, JNET, SEARN, EARN, and other long haul networks. The discussion groups associated with AEDNET are also LISTSERV addresses. The consequences of such implementation are: 1) only those with access to not-for-profit long haul networks can interact with AEDNET; 2) conferencing action is artificial and not facile; 3) tracking of conversations requires bothersome labelling of the conversation. The positive aspects are that the system is either at no cost to the end user or at very low cost to the end user, and that there is relatively easy connection to the international community. The future of AEDNET depends upon funding, collaborative efforts with for-profit networks such as GENIE, and the establishment of an on-campus conferencing system at Syracuse University.

AEDNET participants exchange electronic mail, take part in on-line conferences, discussion groups and short-term forums, receive an electronic journal entitled "New Horizons for Adult Education", and receive the project's newsletter in electronic form.

To look at one of these activities, there have been forum discussions on the use of the technology and on women's issues in adult education. The technology forum got fairly strong response while the women's issues forum got little traffic. There could have been several factors, including the time of the school year, the presentation of the material, early responses to the forum statements, to name a few, but there is also the consideration that the topic was much more "personal" and called for revelation of inner thought and philosophy.

The potential for significant information exchange is significant on AEDNET. Its challenge is to explore that potential.

ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH AND ITS RELEVANCE TO ADULT EDUCATION PRACTICE

Convenor: Colin Titmus
University of Leeds

Participants: Stuart Marriott
Kjell Rubenson

Degrees of impurity (Stuart Marriott)

This contribution ruminates about approaches to the problem of 'pure research' in relation to the study of continuing education. It explores a number of unresolved puzzles which I brought away from the symposium on 'Discipline-based research' at the 1986 meeting of SCUTREA. My points of departure are the widespread feeling that we need to firm up our intellectual credentials, and the equally widespread doubt and disagreement about how that is to be done.

I take somewhat as given the quite extensive literature contrasting 'disciplines', 'perspectives', and 'fields of study'. It throws some light on the position of 'education' in the academic pantheon, but there is probably not much to be gained by further elaboration in that direction. Neither shall I refer to the 'realms of knowledge' debate fomented by philosophers and epistemologists in education; it is an important debate, but one which does not quite pin-point what concerns me.

Ramos (1981) has argued that to be worthy of recognition for graduate-level study, a subject must be capable of establishing its epistemological foundations from within its own resources. This looks like an autarkic fantasy: it is philosophically questionable and practically incorrect. The setting up of a 'graduate school' depends on social convention, political and financial astuteness, and the manufacture of acceptability. (An interesting fact about the founding fathers of modern sociology, Durkheim and Weber for example, is the considerable amount of time and energy they gave to shaping the institutional structures of their calling, to organising professional associations, conferences, journals and so on, in addition to writing about intellectual and methodological foundations.) Research is organised knowledge, and that is as much a matter of social co-ordination as of epistemological or practical progress. Becher (1983, 1984) has studied various areas of intellectual endeavour in universities from the perspective of cultural anthropology. His implicit message is that we should not worry unduly about whether this or that is or is not genuinely a 'discipline'; institutional acceptance is the key, and it is more productive to clear our minds about how this or that actually works once it is in place.

According to Becher, Education as a university subject is to be placed among the applied social sciences, sharing their position below the academic salt, dependence on soft knowledge, and domination by intellectual fashion rather than by cumulative scholarly or technical achievement. Fashion is a correlate of faction: educational studies provide a home for essentially competing schools of thought, and are classified by Becher as a 'power culture'; correspondingly, external influence is registered less through demonstrable skill or authority than through ideological negotiation and persuasion. All this I take to apply with a vengeance to the study of education for adults. Thus the questions arise, internally and externally, 'Whose adult educational knowledge?' and 'Knowledge for what purposes?' Or perhaps we wobble between ages of innocence (the early 1960s?) when the answers seem so obvious that such questions do not suggest themselves, and ages of imprecation (the mid 1970s?) when they are reinvented and posed with increasing aggressiveness.

An innocent version is found in Coolie Verner's early work on the 'theory of method' (1959,1962). For Verner the catalogue of concerns in the university study of adult education was generated by the inherent organisational logic of the institutions that actually existed to promote and deliver adult education. It did not take long for that kind of position to be undermined: education for adults was seen as an increasingly diverse field and administrative definitions became looser; it turned into an increasingly conflict-ridden field, demanding, for some, ideological opposition to any or all officially sponsored delivery organisations; for others the discovery of self-directed learning led to a studied neglect of formal institutions; and so on.

Critical sociology supersedes the study of practical administration, but are we any better off? What has happened to the mould-breaking doctrines of yesteryear? Curiously enough, all these turns of fashion seem to be underlain by an almost universal view that the study of education for adults is pretty directly concerned with equipping policy makers, administrators and practitioners to do a job better. The conflicts are really about the scope and definition of the job, the identification of patron saints, and the appointment of tomorrow's standard bearers. The intellectual apparatus deployed is too often derivative, stale even, set up to produce foregone conclusions.

I do not suppose I shall receive automatic applause for saying, as I happen to believe, that the 'university' is definable as the place where, among other things, knowledge and insight are to be pursued ad libitum. It is a point of view that demands far finer argument than there is scope for here. I must keep to the question of the relationship between relatively pure knowledge-gathering and the education of educators of adults. Is there anything to be said for a dish of disciplinary or intellectual purism in this banquet of study and research to which we invite practitioners? Are there subjects worth tasting because in the judgment of the teacher/supervisor they simply nourish? (From personal experience I could list a number of studies, historical and social-psychological, which have greatly enriched my awareness and possibly even my practice of the trade. They bear on education for adults, but they are not about education for adults, and equally significantly they were written, not by fellow tradesmen, but by authors concerned to gather much wider swathes of human experience.)

Dissent from the tyrrany of 'applied' study (conservative or radical) leads one to consider a much more subtle question of applicability — the personal education of the practitioner in continuing education. The practitioner discharges a function, in a situation, and according to acknowledged or unacknowledged moral and political commitments. Function, situation and commitment may be complicated enough, but are they the whole story? What about the person inside? Are there educational experiences more to do with developing persons-in-roles than with equipping functionaries or inspiring servants of causes? This question of the personal preparedness of practitioners has been addressed (inconclusively to be sure) in other areas. It is a feature of the applicability of 'applied social studies' (educational studies included) to be set alongside our anthropological awareness of fashionable posturing and political in-fighting.

Policy Research (Kjell Rubenson)

Cross (1981) has observed from a North American perspective that articles dealing with theory are rare in adult education. One explanation commonly offered is that the emergence of a specialised field of study has been linked with the professionalisation of adult education, and the accumulation of knowledge has been based almost solely on efforts to improve the practice of adult education. To strengthen the 'knowledge base', it has been suggested, more attention must be given to intra-disciplinary issues; we should be aware that contract research may contribute to policy formation for agencies like Ministries or Departments of Education, but generally does not contribute greatly to the growth of generalisable knowledge. From a Swedish perspective this view can be questioned. Instead of getting into a fruitless debate over 'basic' versus 'applied' research, we should examine what policy research is and could be. The purpose here is to present the Swedish tradition, and contrast it with the situation in other countries.

Policy research: the Swedish tradition

The relative success of educational policy research in Sweden over a period of 20 years is closely related to broader features of the country's educational policy and administration. Marklund (1984) identifies three formative factors:

- rolling reforms of schools
- central direction of schools
- the sectoral principle as an essential aspect of research policy.

The third of these is particularly relevant to the theme of this paper.

It is a tradition in Sweden to refer to three main forms of reserach finance: (a) basic grants to universities for research and research training; (b) allocations to research councils and similar bodies; (c) allocations to and from national authorities in various policy fields, called sectors. The term 'sector' denotes a field of national policy and administration, such as health and social welfare, defence, the labour market, communications and traffic. – and education, which is under the central authority of the National Board of Education (NBE).

The sectoral principle can be briefly described as follows. The central authority in any sector of society should have resources and be responsible for R&D acitivites relevant to that sector. Research work should be entrusted to university departments and draw on the scientific competence of the universities. (When adult education became a central policy issue in the late 1960s this resulted in a major expansion of research. Despite long traditions in adult education practice is was not before it entered the policy scene that it evolved as a field of research.)

The Swedish tradition is one of contract research, but linked to long-term policy development. The contrast with what is traditionally defined as research aimed at producing generalisable knowledge is less easily made than it would be in the Canadian tradition. I would, however be wrong to assume that the 'sectoral principle' is undisputed and goes uncriticised by advocates of basic research.

Policy research versus basic research

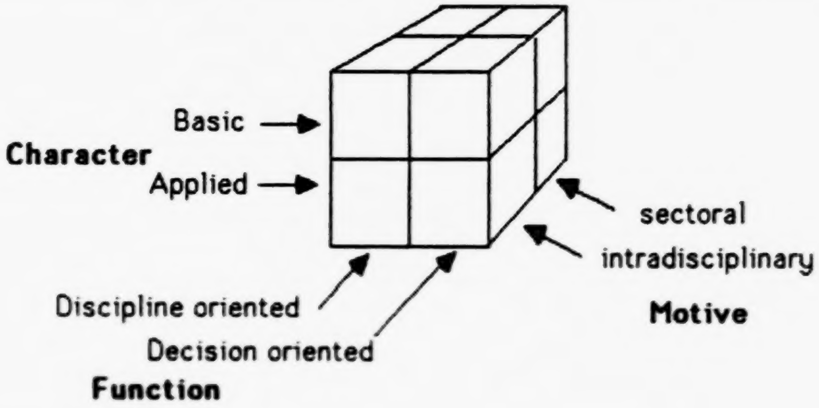
The eternal debate about the freedom of research and researchers versus the needs of society and the demand for influential research can be approached through certain concepts introduced by the Swedish Royal Commision on Research Councils (SOU 1977:52). Intra-disciplinary relevance concerns the value of any piece of research for the development of the discipline as such; social relevance concerns the extent to which the research could have an input to society at large. Clearly the key to discussing the second of these is the level of visible relevance, that is, directly intended impact on society.

In the general debate it is common to equate intra-disciplinary relevance with basic research, and high social relevance with applied research. This is a confusion which leads to an over simplified view of research:

Character	Basic research	Applied research
Function	Intradisciplinary importance	Social relevance
Motive	Intradisciplinary initiated (development of theories and methods)	Sectoral (policy) initiated (applied research and development work)

I would like to argue that these distinctions are less evident that they seem to be, and that they create a danger of confusing the character and function of research with the motives for initiating it. From the simplistic point of view it would be assumed that research motivated by policy considerations is exclusively applied, without relevance to the development of theories and methods. The simplistic view also suggest that the scientific base on which policy research rests is developed free from the social and sectoral problems to which its theories and methods are to be applied.

A more adequate alternative would require us to think in three dimensions:



Conclusion

Using the Swedish system as a point of departure, I argue that policy research under certain conditions can be of crucial importance for the development of knowledge within the discipline of adult education. Forces preventing such a development are:

- the structure of departments of adult education and their emphasis on practice and teaching
- the existing tradition of policy research in most countries
- the far-reaching specialisation in knowledge production

Perspectives from the UK on provision for adult learners with disabilities: A symposium

(Contributors: Jenny Corbett, David Hutchinson, David Johnstone and Alastair Kent. Convened by Alan Wellings)

There is relatively little attention to issues associated with the educational needs and purposes of adults with various kinds of impairments. In this symposium, four contributors offer some perspectives on these issues through reports on different practice-based researches. Their contributions are introduced and summarised below and will be available in full printed form at the Conference.

This symposium is about work with "disabled" adults, people who may have impairments of one or more kinds - of their senses; of their motor control; of their physiological processes; of their body structure or functioning; or of their psychological functioning. The contributors to the symposium all work in educational settings with adults with disabilities and they are also concerned to engage in research, as well as practice.

In introducing the contributors, it seems appropriate to start by focussing on the concept, "disabled," the term which is most commonly used to refer to people with impairments which hinder their "mobility, domestic routines, or occupational and communication skills" (Thomas, 1982). The term "disabled" has been explicitly set in a definitional framework which distinguishes its meaning from "impairment" and "handicap" in a way that seems generally to be found acceptable and helpful (WHO, 1980).

The "disabled" are part of that group of the population which has one or more impairments. They aren't the whole of this group - there are many who have impairments who are not labelled "disabled" - and the similarity it implies between those of whom it is used is misleading; they are "in many ways less alike than are able-bodied people" (Thomas, 1982). Those whose impairment is below a threshold of visibility, don't carry the label "disabled;" some people understandably conceal handicapping impairments in order to avoid being labelled. Those who have visible impairment(s) attract the label and with it a wide range of contingencies - on the one hand, the eligibility for such things as special medical, social and educational provisions as are relevant and available; on the other, its carriers have their individuality and membership of other than the "disabled" constituency masked and a high probability of an extensive set of other, quite tangible, disadvantages.

A useful way of understanding the power of "disability" is to consider it not just as a label but as a perceptual category*; and one that doesn't work very well. People don't end up "disabled" as a result of others individually using deliberate rational processes of assessing the available evidence against criteria for classification as "disabled" (if they did, the difficulties of classifying would to emphasise the lack of conceptual and practical coherence of "disability"); people end up "disabled" because we fit them into a perceptual category, we just "see" "disability," using a socially shared, taken-for-granted perceptual tool for seeing and responding with - and which is so embedded in our common systems of structuring the world that it is difficult to stand back and examine it.

---

*This understanding draws heavily on Douglas, 1986.

The way social and institutional systems influence how we see things can clearly change over time, and an important set of tasks is to try to understand better the conditions for bringing about acceptable change in situations where we presently use "disability." For the moment, we use the category widely and many people strongly hold that it is an important, general, social and ethical value that we dissolve by a range of means the spectrum of disadvantages which is associated with it.

The contributors to this symposium are active in both educational practice with people with disabilities. They each engage critically in research linked to their practice and are concerned from both their practice and research perspectives to generate better understanding "disability" and the institutions, practices and prospects associated with it.

Corbett has been researching the processes of integrating mature students with disabilities into a "mainstream" college of further education. Her particular concern has been to examine the progress of students in relation to their previous social and educational experiences; she is very aware of the undeveloped potentials of many adults in day centres and their need for support from committed professionals. She argues that

it is important to recognise that specific disabilities have implications for course attendance and completion rates and that it is insensitivity, not philanthropy to dissolve "real problems in the soup of 'attitude change'" (Abberley, 1987);

emerging from a special school, followed perhaps by a day-centre, is overwhelming for many and accepting the limitations of disability can be made more stressful by encountering the range of options for adulthood offered by the anti-discrimination process (Bee, 1985);

that students must share the "same risks and seek the same rewards" (Brisenden, 1986) as other students, even though this will lead to failure for some - sentiment and pity are impositions of an "able-bodied" culture and fuel a deficit model of disability (Finkelstein, 1980).

Corbett reports that in her research she found a mismatch between the potential of many mature students and the horizons they set for themselves as a result of their previous social and educational experience; many never saw further education as a realistic goal (Lloyd, 1987). Students who progressed well in college transferred this development into their community roles, taking on more responsible roles in day-centres, increasing their domestic participation and moving into other areas of educational provision.

Huthchinson's research started from discussions in the Warnock Committee (HMSO, 1978) about "Significant Living Without Work." This concept became too contentious to be part of a formal scheme of research but nonetheless was the starting point for the development and evaluation of a curriculum for young people with severe physical disabilities in a college of further education (Hutchinson and Tennyson, 1986). Programmes were devised to cater for students ranging from those able with support to integrate into full-time mainstream courses to those who needed fully individually designed programmes to allow them to benefit from the resources and facilities of the college.

Hutchinson reports that the starting point in curriculum design was a model of future need, a model in which the student with disabilities is seen as in control of a future role and which can indicate ways in which the college programme can help to equip the student for full adulthood. Assessment of people prior to their entering the programme emphasised their uniqueness and within the programme there was emphasis on making the sources of both learning and support as broadly based and realistic as possible; thus importance was attached to making role models available to students by involving practitoners with disabilities in the programme and students' families were involved in order to help identify tasks and support transfer of learning. Hutchinson argues that the value of the programme for individual students can be negated if their subsequent experience is of uncoordinated support services in their community.

Johnstone has been researching the circumstances of families with an adult member who has a disability; he reports that there are about 60,000 adults who depend on living at home with their parents or other close kin. He argues that although there have been advances in the suppport generally for parents by professionals and their services since the Warnock Report (HMSO 1978), the stress on parents of caring and planning for a disabled son or daughter during the transition from child to adult status is inadequately recognised. There has been little help for professionals in developing the involvement of parents in planning and provision related to adolescence and subsequently (Mittler and Mittler, 1982).

Johnstone reports evidence that young people with disabilities, of whom about 16,000 leave school each year, are mostly no different from other school-leavers in wanting paid employment either immediately or after further education or training but there is little in the way of information, advice or tangible support for parents anxious to help their children to make good use of what may be a critical period for identifying and choosing from a range of opportunities (Parker, 1986; Anderson and Clarke, 1982). For families whose members with disabilities do not leave the family home, whether because of the severity of their disabilities or otherwise the burden on parents may be massive for their whole lives (Glendenning, 1983); Johnstone argues that there is a general problem in our society in that we perpetuate emotionally driven and paternalistic systems of care.

Kent is concerned with people who are born deaf or who become deaf before acquiring oral language. He regards them as a linguistic minority (British Sign Language being their first language, not English) who don't have the option open to members of other linguistic minorities of participating fully in the surrounding oral culture by learning another oral language. Kent reports that systematic educational provision for adults who are pre-lingually deaf is almost totally lacking; with notable exceptions (eg ILEA) this group has been overlooked even by those authorities and agencies which have well-developed equal opportunities policies in other respects.

In considering the characteristics of the pre-lingually deaf, Kent notes that they typically develop reading and writing skills more slowly than the hearing population (Conrad, 1977) and that it has been suggested (eg Ladd, 1981) that this may be associated with the existence of a strongly oralist tradition in deaf education and the consequent neglect of sign language. Whether or not this is the case, many deaf adults lack the basic skills necessary for adult life and employment and risk being regarded as having severe learning difficulties simply because of poor language skills. Some centres which are part of the deaf community have established adult literacy schemes of their own but there seems little awareness on the part of deaf people of the potential of general adult education provision and there may be reticence on the part of those who are aware because of anticipated communication difficulties. In any case, there is little reason for supposing that adult education services would be able to respond to any demand from deaf people because of the lack of opportunities for tutors to acquire even elementary use of sign language. An exception here is in Nottingham where the Adult Literacy Service has found a demand for provision manned by specialist staff (Skelton, 1983).

Kent notes that there is neglect of the contribution that deaf people can make as teachers and yet there is a growing interest in learning sign language, not only among professionals working with deaf people but also among the general public and in professions such as the theatre and the arts.

Abberley, P 1987 "The Concept of Oppression and the Development of a Social Theory of Disability" Disability, Handicap and Society 2.1

Anderson, E and Clarke, L 1982 Disability in Adolescence London: Methuen

Bee, W 1985 "Stopping Discrimination - What would it Really Mean?" GLAD Autumn 1985

Brisenden, S 1986 "Independent Living and the Medical Model of Disability" Disability, Handicap and Society 1.2

Conrad, R "The Reading Ability of Deaf School Leavers" British Journal of Educational Psychology 47

Douglas, Mary 1986 How Institutions Think Syracuse University Press

Finkelstein, V 1980 "This Way or That? Know Your Own Approach" The Handicapped Person in the Community Milton Keynes: Open University Press

Glendenning, C 1983 Unshared Care London: Routledge Kegan Paul

Hutchinson, D and Tennyson, C Transition to Adulthood London: FEU

Lloyd, C 1987 A Realistic Goal? The Integration of Learners with Special Needs into Adult Education London: Longman/FEU

Ladd, P 1981 "The Erosion of Social and Self Identity" The Integaration and Disintegration of the Deaf in Society The Scottish Workshop

Mittler, P and Mittler H 1982 Partnership with Parents Stratford upon Avon: NCSE

Parker, G 1986 Into Work: A Review of the Literature about Disabled Young Adults Preparation for and Movement into Employment York: SPRU

Report of the Committee of Enquiry into the Education of Handicapped Children and Young People 1978 Special Educational Needs London: HMSO

Skelton, R 1983 "Developing Literacy and Numeracy Programmes for Deaf Adults" ALBSU Newsletter No.12

Thomas, David 1982 The Experience of Handicap London: Methuen

WHO 1980 International Clasifications of Impairments, Disabilities and Handicaps Geneva: World Health Organisation

ADULT EDUCATION, WELFARE REFORM, AND THE WORLD OF WORK: A CANADIAN PERSPECTIVE (Research Completed)

Michael Collins, University of Saskatchewan

Abstract

Purpose. This paper has three components:

1. An account of a province-wide adult education program for welfare recipients that has been assessed as successful by a large majority within each of the key stake-holder groups (e.g. students, adult educators, government officials, politicians, social services personnel).
2. A critical analysis that raises important practical and ethical questions about the role of adult educators who develop, evaluate, and teach in education and training programs tied to welfare reform.
3. An invitation to British and American colleagues attending this presentation to reflect critically on, and share, their experience of such programs in light of prevailing conceptions about employment prospects, the world of work, and socio-economic and political realities. (In this way, the presentation becomes part of an on-going shared action research project on Adult Education, Welfare Reform, and the World of Work).

Specific Context. The Saskatchewan Skills Development Program was announced on March 27, 1984 as part of the Saskatchewan Progressive Conservative government's overall policy on welfare reform. The Program was intended, initially, to cover a period extending from June 1, 1984 to March 31, 1986. Following publication of interim and final reports (1985, 1986) prepared by this researcher, the government announced in a policy document on adult education that S.S.D.P. will continue despite unprecedented cut-backs in other major post-secondary education programs. Under the rubric of 'skills development', the program has, in effect, doubled the amount of formal offerings in the area of adult basic education (adult literacy), opening prospects for placements in the job market and further education to some of its clients. Even critics of welfare reform policy acknowledge that S.S.D.P. has merits that justified its implementation and retention.

Critical Analysis. A brief explanation is given of the responsive (naturalistic) procedures that were adopted for implementation and evaluative phases of S.S.D.P. at the instigation of this researcher who was the primary evaluator. Then, using S.S.D.P. as reference 'text', a critical analysis of education and training linked to welfare reform in contemporary political economies (Canada, U.S.A., U.K.) is undertaken. This poses relevant questions of practical and ethical import for adult educators. Critical theory perspectives, particularly those of Jurgen Habermas, are incorporated into the analysis. An action research dimension is engaged by inviting participants to explore the role of the adult educator in the contexts described, to examine notions of education, training, and work steering programs like S.S.D.P., and to raise questions about underlying assumptions of the researcher's orientation.

Importance of Study. Education and training linked to policies designed for welfare recipients is an aspect of adult education in the U.K., U.S.A., and Canada. Such policies, for the the most part, do not realistically address altered circumstances regarding the availability of traditional employment and the need for broader conceptions of work. Hence the relevance of a forum for dialogue among adult educators from the U.K., U.S.A., and Canada to examine their role in the context of welfare reform policy and the world of work.

INDEX

A

Action Learning 283
Action Research 346
Adult Basic Education 33,154,238
Adult Continuing Education 459
Adult Development 38
Adult Education 15,27,50,72,142,160,176,226,317
323,329,404,410,432,465,491,496,506
Adult Education Research, Researchers 27,166,358,387,485,496
Adult Learners, adult learning 160,193,200,212,243,335,381,485
Adult Literacy Programmes 289
Afro-American 160
Allman, Paula 1
America, American, *see also United States* 218
Andragogy 232
Annenberg/CPB Project 416
Anxiety 404
Argyris's Action Mapping 438
Armstrong, Paul 9
Arnold, Gregory W. 114
Attitudes to Adult Education 126
Attitudes Toward Computers 238
Attrition 289

B

Bao, Xue-Ming 15
Barrber, Shirley Lake 21,108
Barriers 90
Baskett, H. K. 27,485
Beder, Hal 33
Berger, Nancy O. 38
Biographical Method 166
Boreham, Nick 44
Boshier, Roger 50
Boucouvalas, Marcie 56
Bova, Breda 62
Bowes, S.Gregory 68
Bright, Barry P. 72
Britain, British *see also United Kingdom* 126,131,142,218
British Adult Education 444

C

Canada, Canadian 218,226,506
Cervero, Ronald M. 79
Change 485
Change, social and economic 453
Chene, Adele 84
China 15,387
Class, social 249

Classroom Learning 381
Clearing, The 422
Coggins, Chere Campbell 90
Collins, Michael 506
Communications Infrastructure 193
Community Members 181
Community-Based Action Research 346
Comparative Analysis 136,311,375
Comparative Study 15,226
Computers 238,447
Concept Maps 136
Conflicts 62
Conti, Gary J. 96
Continuing Professional Education 79,301
Cookson, Peter S. 102,471
Co-operation 102
Co-operative Extension Service 21
Copeland, Harlan G. 108
Corbett, Jenny 501
Counselling Role of Tutor 459
Courtenay, Bradley C. 114
Critical 432
Critical Reflexiveness 9
Critical Theory 166,176
Critical Thinking 176
Cross Cultural Relevance 352
Cross-Cultural Comparison 387
Culture 206,301
Curriculum, Curricula in Adult Education 222,260

D

Danis, Claudia 120
Danish Folk School 422
Darkenwald, Gordon G. 126,131
Dawis, Renee 323
Delcourt, Marcia 238
Delphi Study 295
Deshler, David 136
Deterrents to participation 131
Dialogue 305
Disabilities 501
Distance Education 416
Documents 136

E

Early Development of Adult Education 410
Education for Social Purpose 255
Education of Older Adults 84
Educational Guidance for Adults 426
Educational Software 243
Edwards, Christine 142
English Language 317
Enterprise Culture 444
Epistemology 72

Ethical Value Dilemmas 21
Ethics of Professional Practice 393
Etiology 160
Evans, Karen 147
Exchange 102,491
Expert Judgement 44
External Baccalaureate Degree Programme 90

F

Farmer, Helen 485
Farmer Jr, James 485
Farr,Charlotte Webb 154
Fellenz, Robert A. 96
Females 364,399
Feminist Perspective 349
Fiction 38,358
Field Dependence/Independence 154
Fields, Emilye Hunter 160
Finger, Matthias 166
Finland 31
Fletcher, Colin 172
Florini, Barbara M. 491
Focus Group Interviews 108
French Literature 38

G

Garrison, D. R. 27
Gender 249
Griffin, Colin 176
Guatemala 68

H

Haffenden, Ian 147
Havercamp, Michael J. 181
Hermeneutics 166
Heuristic Tools 136
Hispanic Women 62
Hoghielm, Robert 471
Hugo, Jane M. 187
Human Resource Developers, Development 311,438
Hutchinson, David 501

I

Ideology 375
Ihejieto-Aharan, Clifford O. 193
Imagery 404
Independent Study 218
Informal Adult Learning Networks 453
Informal Teaching-Learning Transactions 399
Inner City 222,289
Intelligence 154
Interests 200
International Adult Education 102,260
Involvement 181

J

Jarvis, Peter 200,485
Jeffcutt, Paul 206
Johnstone, David 501

K

Kaltoft, Gwendolyn 212
Keane, Patrick 218
Kent, Alastair 501
Khan, Feroz 222
Knowledge 249
Knowledge Generation 491
Korhonen, Lloyd 404

L

Language Planning 317
Larsson, Staffan 226
Law, Michael 232
Learning 181,352
Learning Experiences 120,379
Learning From Experience 369
Learning Networks 453
Learning Project Research 340
Learning Style, styles 90,277
Learning to Become Physically Fit 272
Lewis, Linda H. 238,243
Literary Fiction *see also Fiction* 358
Loesch, Thomas 277
Luttrell, Wendy 249

M

McIlroy, John 255
MacIntosh, Athalinda J. 260
McMahon, A.D. 266
McPartland, Patricia A. 272
Managers 283
Managing Adult Education 266
Marineau, Catherine 277

Marriott, Stuart 496
Marsick, Victoria J. 283
Martin, Larry G. 287
Marx, Karl 1
Meanings of Adult Education 220
Methodological Problems 346
Mid-Life 62
Milk, Martha 295
Moon, Charles E. 154
Moser, Katherine 301
Munro, Jane 305
Murphy, Christine A. 243
Music 212

N

Native American Learners 90
Needs 142,200,323
Needs of the Trainers 147
Niemi, John A. 311
Nigerian Adult Learners 193
Non-fiction 358
Non-Formal adult education 335
Non-traditional Female Students 364
North America *see also United States* 27
Nurses 399

O

Oddy, Elizabeth C. 491
Orem, Richard A. 317

P

Paradigms 375
Park, Rosemarie J. 323
Participant Input 114
Participation 131
Participation Research 375,471
Patersen, R.W.K. 329
Peace 187
Percy, Keith 335
Peters, John M. 340
Phillips, Rebecca R. 62
Philosophy, philosophical 15,329
Physicians 399
Pillinger, Jane 346
Poems 305
Politics 79
Practical 432
Practice 56,496
Practitioner Research 172
Pratt, Daniel D. 352
Preferred learning styles 90
Professional Adult Education 21
Professional Education 44

Professional Practice 393
Professionalism 79
Programme Planning 114
Psychology 72,352
Public Health Education 295

Q

Qualitative Research Methods 236.246
Quantitative Research Methods 243
Quantitative Induction 33
Quigley, Allan 360,471

R

Race 249
Radical Adult Education 1
Research 56,340,416
Research Ideas 27
Retention 160
Return of the Jedi 232
Rising, Melinda J. 364
Rohfeld, Rae W. 491
Rossing, Boyd E. 369
Rubenson, Kjell 232,375,496

S

Self 56
Self-Directed Learning 56,120
Self-Taught Adults 120
Sheckley, Barry G. 381
Shelly, Anne 491
Simpson, Edwin L. 387
Singapore 50
Small-Scale Research 346
Social and Economic Change 453
Social and Environmental Factors 398
Social Construction of Knowledge 249
Social Learning Constructs 438
Social Purpose 255
Social Science 410
Sociology 9
Sork, Thomas J. 393
Sources of Data 358
Spencer, Bruce 255
Staff Development Programmes 68
Stalker Costin, Joyce 226
Stegman, Carolyn B. 398
Stephens. Michael 218
Stephens, Rebecca L. 404
Sternberg's Triarchic Theory of Intelligence 154
Storlie, Rebecca 323
Stress 160
Structurally Unemployed 323
Stubblefield, Harold 218,410
Sweden 226,447
Symbolism 206

T

Takemoto, Patricia A. 416,422
Taylor, John 426
Teacher Actions 96
Teams in Action 266
Technicism 9
Technology 364
Theory 369
Theory and Practice 277
Tinto's Model of Attrition 289
Titmus, Colin 496
Training of Unemployed Adults 206
Transformative Experience 283
Transient Organisations 206

U

Unemployment 142
United Kingdom, *see also Britian and England* 206,301,426
United States, *see also America and North America* 15,126,131
301,323,410
Universities 68,255,301
University of San Carlos 68
Urban Extension Education 108
Usher, Robin 432

V

Vertrees, Daniel 491

W

Wallis, John 1
War 187
Watkins, Karen 438
Welfare Reform 506
Welfare-to-Work 465
Wellings, Alan 501
Westwood, Sallie 444
Winter, Hans A. 447
Withnall, Alexandra 453
Women, Older 84
Women's Club 187
Women's Ways of Knowing 249
Wootton, J. 459
Worksetting 272
World of Work 506

Z

Zacharakis-Jutz, Jeff 465

INDUSTRY & Higher Education

The need for co-operation between the business and higher education sectors is becoming widely recognized. This new, high-level journal focuses on areas of mutual interest, such as innovation, technology transfer, intellectual property, collaborative partnerships, manpower issues, incubators and distance learning.

The journal's international readership is drawn equally from the business and academic worlds.

For your brochure and a sample copy, please write to Michael Davison, Butterworth Scientific Ltd, P.O. Box 63, Guildford, Surrey, GU2 5BH. Telephone: 0483 300966. Telex: 859556 SCITEC G.

OPEN UNIVERSITY PRESS

THE RISE OF INDEPENDENT STUDY
The Politics and the Philosophy of an Educational Innovation, 1970-1987
Derek Robbins
June 1988 c.160pp 0 335 15848 X c.£25.00hb

DEVELOPING CRITICAL THINKERS
Stephen Brookfield
1987 312pp 0 335 15551 0 £8.95pb

HOW TO GET A PhD
Estelle Phillips and D.S. Pugh
1987 176pp 0 335 15536 7 £6.95pb
0 335 15537 5 £22.50hb

A selection of our titles is on show at the exhibition.

Further Your Education With Routledge

Towards New Horizons for Women in Distance Education
International Perspectives
Edited by **Karlene Faith**
Provides an overview of women's experience, access and needs in distance education. Includes international contributions on distance learning programmes.
June: 368pp
Hb: 0 415 00565 5: £27.50

Adult Education and Cultural Development
David Jones
Examines how cultural development is promoted or hindered by adult education, and contains a number of case studies from popular courses such as painting and pottery.
August: 224pp
Hb: 0 415 00553 1: £22.50

International Policies for Third World Education
UNESCO, Literacy and Development
Phillip W. Jones
Outlines how UNESCO's literacy programme has evolved and, by discussing how idealistic aims and intentions have been realised, provides a critique of the post-war history of the United Nations and related organisations.
May: 228pp
Hb: 0 415 00445 4: £25.00

Available from booksellers. For further information contact:
Bridget Walsh, Promotion Dept., Routledge, 11 New Fetter Lane,
London EC4P 4EE. Tel: 01-583 9855.

Routledge